

AN
ACCOUNT
OF THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EGYPT.

Containing;
Its Situation, Extent and Divisions; Rivers, Bays, Harbours and Capes; Climate, Diseases, Air, Soil and Productions; Chief Towns, Population, Manners, Customs, and a description of the various Inhabitants; Religion, Laws and Government; Agriculture, Manufactures, Arts and Commerce; Natural History, and Curiosities of Nature and Art; a sketch of its former Revolutions, and present Government of the Mamelukes.

Compiled
By JOHN REMMEY,
With occasional Notes.

TO WHICH IS ADDED,

AN APPENDIX,

Containing
An authentic and impartial account of the late Naval Action in the road of Aboukir, with an accurate plan.

The whole illustrated by a Map of Egypt and part of Syria, from the latest and best Authorities.

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1946. The first and the second highest frequencies of the species were observed in the month of May, while the lowest frequency was observed in the month of January.

EDWARD W. BROWN

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PREFACE.

AT a time when the nations of Europe are engaged in a destructive and ruinous War, and one of them has actually transported a numerous army to the shores of Egypt, and made that ancient part of the Eastern world the seat of their hostilities, it may not, perhaps, be deemed improper to give an account of the present state of that country, with a sketch of its history and former revolutions, and particularly those of later years. To accomplish this object, the Compiler has drawn his information chiefly from Norden, Savary, Niebuhr, Bruce, and Volney's Travels; from Payne's Universal Geography, and from other authors on the same subject, equally authentic; more particularly those describing the sea-coast, bays, capes, harbours, soundings, bearings and distances, &c. &c.

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To this is added an appendix, containing an accurate and impartial account of the late decisive Naval Action in the Road of Aboukir, which is illustrated by a Plan, said to be correct, of the position of the British and French fleets at the commencement of the action.

How far the Compiler has succeeded in this attempt, he leaves to the candid, generous, and impartial to determine.

JOHN REMMEY.

New York, March 4th, 1799.





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AN
ACCOUNT
OF
EGYPT.

Chapter I.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, and Divisions. Its Climate and Soil; with a particular description of the River Nile, the Cause of its overflowing, and an Account of its Cataracts.

Length 600 miles } Situated { 20 and 32 deg. North Latitude.
Breadth 250 miles } between { 28 and 36d. East Long. from London, or
103 and 111 E. Long. from Philadelphia.

<i>Subdivisions:</i>	<i>Chief Towns:</i>
Northern division containing	Grand Cairo 30d. 2m. 30s. N. Latitude Bulac, Alexandria, Rosetta, Damieta.
Lower Egypt	Said or Thebes;
Southern division containing	Coffeir

EGYPT is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean; on the East by the Isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea, which divide it from Asia; on the South by Nubia, and on the West by the Desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa. Its situation includes it within the immense peninsula of Africa; but it is accessible only on the side of Asia, whose revolutions in almost every period of history, it has humbly obeyed, on account of which the geographers of the earlier ages have hesitated to what portion of the globe Egypt should be ascribed.— Whilst Ptolemy and Strabo fix it in Africa, Dionysius, Mela, Pliny, Sallust, Hirtius and Solinus assign it to Asia, together with a part of Lybia, now included in Barca. It is supposed to have derived its name from Egyptus, the brother of Danaus, once sovereign of the country. By the Hebrews and Arabs it is called Misraim; it has been named Coptus also, after the capital city of Upper Egypt, and by the Turks called El-kbeit, or the overflowed country.

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By other authors Egypt is divided into Lower, Middle and Upper. The greatest part of Lower Egypt is contained in a triangular island, formed by the Mediterranean Sea, and the two great branches of the Nile, which dividing itself five or six miles below Old Cairo, one part of it flows to the N. E. and falls into the sea of Damietta, the ancient Pelusium ; and the other branch runs towards the N. W. and falls into the sea of Rosetta ; therefore this part of Egypt is called "Delta," from the resemblance which it bears to that Greek letter.

Egypt is divided into Upper and Lower ; the former is a long valley beginning at Syene, and ending at Grand Cairo. Two ridges of mountains, which take their departure from the last cataract, form the lofty outlines of Upper Egypt : their parallel direction is from North to South, till they reach Grand Cairo, where, separating to the right and left, the one stretches towards Mount Colzoun, and the other terminates in sand banks, near Alexandria. The former consists of high rocks and cliffs, the latter of sandy hills, the base of which is a calcareous stone. Beyond these mountains are deserts, bounded by the Red Sea on the East, and extending over Africa to the West ; in the centre lies that long plain the greatest width of which does not exceed nine leagues. Here the Nile rolls his waters between two insurmountable barriers : now silent and tranquil, following the course which nature and art have traced ; and anon an impetuous torrent, red with the sands of Ethiopia, swelling, overflowing his banks, and spreading his waters over the country for the space of two hundred leagues. In this celebrated valley, man first sought, and first beheld, the light of science, whose radiance, diffusing itself over Greece, has successively enlightened the rest of the world. This valley, though still as fruitful as in the happy days of Thebes, is much less cultivated ; its famous cities are laid level with the dust ; laws and arts have been trodden under foot by despotism and ignorance, and their throne usurped.

Lower Egypt includes all the country lying between Grand Cairo, the Mediterranean, the Isthmus of Suez, and Lybia : skirted by arid sands, this immense plain contains slips of land well cultivated, on the borders of the canals, and in its centre that triangular island to which the Greeks gave the name of Delta, formed by the two branches of the Nile, which divide at *Butn el Bakara* (the Cow's Belly) and empty themselves into the sea below Damietta and Rosetta. This island, the most fruitful on earth, has lost much of its extent, since the time when Canopus and Pelusium were its limits. The eastern bulwark of Egypt having been destroyed by conquerors, and those who cultivated the earth becoming exposed to the inroads of the Arabs, the inhabitants have retired farther into the country. The canals, which with their streams brought fertility, are dried up ; and the earth ceasing to be watered, and continually exposed to the burning heats of the sun, is become a barren sand. Scattered over the plains which formerly contained fruitful fields, and flourishing cities, on the Pelusiac, Tanitic, and Mendesian arms, which all

flowed from the Damietta branch of the Nile, we only find, at present, miserable hamlets, surrounded by date trees, and deserts. These canals, formerly navigable, bear little resemblance to their former state, and no longer communicate with the lake Menzala, except a very little while during the time of the inundation; they are dry all the rest of the year. By digging them, and removing the mud which the river has left, since the Turks have been masters of Egypt, the country they traverse would become fertile, and the Delta restored to its ancient grandeur.

The climate is in summer very hot, from its situation between two ranges of mountains, and from its sandy soil, on which the sun darts with almost perpendicular rays at the summer solstice; and even in winter he shines with great heat* toward the middle of the day, though the nights and mornings are then very cold; the sharpest weather is about the beginning of February. Near the sea are sometimes great rains from November to March; but at Cairo they have seldom any rain, except in December, January, and February, and then have only small showers for about a quarter of an hour. In Upper Egypt they have scarce any rain; and Dr. Pococke says, that when he was there, he was informed that it had been known to rain but twice very hard for half an hour in eight years. But rain in Egypt is esteemed prejudicial, for the people imagine it produces scarcity, the water of the Nile being alone sufficient for all the purposes of vegetation. They have thunder in summer without rain; and though earthquakes seldom happen, three great shocks were felt in January, 1740, which overthrew several mosques and houses.

The W. and the N. W. winds are those that bring the rain; but the most frequent winds are those from the N. and S. The S. E. winds are

* It might naturally be imagined that Egypt, from these heats, and its wet and marshy condition for three months, must be an unhealthy country; this was my first idea, says Volney, on my arrival there; and when I beheld, at Cairo, the houses of our merchants ranged along the Kalidj, where the water stagnates till the month of April, I made no doubt that the exhalations thence arising, must cause many maladies; but experience proves the fallacy of this theory; the vapours of the stagnant waters, so fatal in Cyprus and Alexandretta, have not the same effect in Egypt. This appears to me to be owing to the natural dryness of the air, to the proximity of Africa and Arabia, which incessantly draw off the humidity, and the perpetual currents of wind, which meet with no obstacle. This aridity is such, that flesh meat exposed, even in summer, to the north wind, does not putrify, but dries up, and becomes hard as wood. In the deserts dead carcases are found, dried in this manner, so light that a man may easily lift with one hand the entire body of a camel. It must be remarked, however, that the air near the sea is infinitely less dry than higher up the country: Thus, at Alexandria, and Rosetta, iron cannot be exposed four-and-twenty hours to the air without rusting.

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sometimes so excessively hot as to resemble the air of an oven; and when they blow, people are obliged to retire to their vaults, and to shut themselves close up. This wind generally begins about the middle of March, and continues till May.

The N. anciently called the Etesian wind, begins to blow in May, just before the rising of the Nile, and greatly refreshes the air, rendering the heat supportable, and bringing with it health and enjoyment. It continues till November, and without this wind it would be impracticable to sail up the Nile after it rises, on account of the rapidity of the currents.

Egypt, according to Savary, beginning at the torrid, extends nine degrees into the temperate zone, though certainly the heats of the Thebais surpass what are felt in many countries directly under the equator. Reaumur's thermometer, when the burning breath of the south is felt, sometimes rises to thirty-eight degrees above the freezing point, and often to thirty-six. This phenomenon must be attributed to the aridity of the sandy plains, which surround Upper Egypt, and the reverberated sun-beams from the mountains, by which it is wholly inclosed. Were heat the principle of diseases, the Said would not be habitable; but it only seems to occasion a burning fever, to which the inhabitants are subject, and which they cure by regimen, drinking much water, and bathing in the river: in other respects they are strong and healthy. Old men are numerous, and many ride on horseback at eighty. The food they eat, in the hot season, much contributes to the preservation of their health; it is chiefly vegetables, pulse and milk. They bathe frequently eat little, seldom drink fermented liquors, and mix much lemon juice in their food. This abstinence preserves vigour to a very advanced age.

Soon after the inundation, the fields are covered with corn: the waters, exhaled by the sun during the day, and condensed by the coolness of night, fall in plentiful dews. The north wind, in summer, continually blows, and, finding no obstacle through all Egypt, where the mountains are not high, drives the vapours of the marshes and lakes towards Abyssinia, and incessantly changes the atmosphere. Perhaps the balsamic emanations of orange flowers, roses, the Arabian jasmine, and odorous plants, contribute to the salubrity of the air. The waters of the Nile, also, lighter, softer, and more agreeable to the taste than any I know, greatly influence the health of the inhabitants. All antiquity acknowledges their excellence*, and the people certainly drink them

* Ptolemy Philadelphus marrying his daughter Berenice to Antiochus, king of Syria, sent her water from the Nile, which alone she could drink. *Atbenaeus.*—The kings of Persia send for the waters of the Nile and Sal ammoniac. *Dino History of Persia.*

The Egyptians are the only people who preserve the water of the Nile in sealed vases, and drink it, when it is old, with the same pleasure we do old wine. *Aristides Rhetor.*

with a kind of avidity, without ever being injured by the quantity. Being lightly impregnated with nitre, they are only a gentle aperient to those who take them to excess. I will not say, with many writers, they make the women prolific, and give strength and plumpness to the men; the faithful historian ought to stop where the marvellous begins, and relate only what he can warrant.

In Lower Egypt, the neighbourhood of the sea, the large lakes, and the abundance of the waters, moderate the sun's heat, and preserve a delightful temperature. Strabo and Diodorus Siculus, who long lived here, did not think the country unhealthy.

Egypt produces, beside barley, rice and wheat, abundance of dowrra, or Indian millet, flax, formerly so famous, hemp, chartame, or safranum, and innumerable sorts of exquisite melons and vegetables, which the people feed on during the heats. In the Lower Egypt they are sowing and reaping all the year. Wherever the waters of the river can be procured, the earth is never idle, and furnishes three crops annually. It is there that the traveller has constantly before his eyes the charming spectacle of flowers, fruits and harvests, and that the spring, the summer, and the autumn present all their treasures at one time. In descending from the cataracts at the beginning of January, one perceives the corn almost ripe; lower down it is in the ear; and, advancing farther, the plains are covered with verdure. The lucern, which they cut three times between the months of March and November, is the only hay of the Egyptians; their flocks are principally fed with it. The horses, asses, mules, and camels, graze in the meadows during the winter; the rest of the year they eat cut straw, barley and beans.

The soil of Egypt is full of nitre, which Dr. Pococke observes, occasions vapours that render the evening air cold and unhealthful. This nitre, and the sediment of the water of the Nile, render Egypt so fruitful, that they sometimes find it necessary to temper it with common sand. For within a mile of the mountains the country is sandy, and lies upon an easy ascent, which the Nile never reaches, and on the edge of it are many villages; but where the mountains extend four or five miles from the Nile, there are villages in the midway between them and the river, built on eminences raised by art; and these, being surrounded by water during the flood, resemble so many islands. Strabo particularly mentions these kind of houses, in his seventeenth book, where he treats expressly of Egypt.

The rivulets around the fields of rice are lined with several kinds of reeds, some of which rise to a great height: the reed calamus is there found in great abundance, which is made use of for writing by the orientals. The papyrus, of which the ancient Egyptians made their paper, and which Strabo calls biblus, is a rush about eight or nine feet high, and an inch thick. It is now scarce. M. Savary saw it in no other part of Egypt than about Damietta and the lake Menzala.

The river Nile, or Abanchi, which, in the Abyssinian tongue, signifies the Father of Rivers, is generally agreed to have its source in 11 or 12 deg. N. latitude, and runs a course of about fifteen hundred miles, for the most part from S. to N. and a little below Cairo, as hath been already observed, divides itself into two branches, one inclining to the E. and the other to the W. and falls into the Mediterranean, the mouths being an hundred miles distant from each other. While the river is contained within the bounds of the ordinary channel, it is said to be no broader at Old Cairo than the Thames at London; and in the driest season of the year is in many places fordable.

The water is thick and muddy, especially when the river is swelled by the heavy rains which constantly fall within the tropics in the beginning of our summer, which are doubtless the principal cause of its annually overflowing the low lands of Egypt. The ancients, who were unacquainted with the climates in those latitudes, were much perplexed when they endeavoured to account for this annual deluge. But such a periodical inundation is far from being peculiar to the Nile, since this is the case with all the rivers which have either their rise or course within the tropics: they annually break their bounds, and overflow the lands for many miles before they reach the sea, particularly in Bengal, Tonquin, and Siam. They likewise leave a prolific mud, which, like that of the Nile, fertilizes the land; and, though the waters of these rivers are also very thick, yet when they have stood for some time, they are neither unpalatable nor unwholesome. Besides, the N. winds, which begin to blow about the latter end of May, drive in the water from the sea, and keep back that in the river, in such a manner as to raise the waters above.

The Egyptians, and especially the Coptis, are persuaded that the Nile always begins to rise on the same day of the year, and indeed it generally begins to rise on the eighteenth or nineteenth of June. From accounts of its rise for three years, Dr. Pococke observes, that he found it rise the first six days from two to five inches every day; for the twelve next days, from five to ten inches; and it thus continued rising till it had attained the height of sixteen cubits, when the canal of Cairo was cut: after this it continued rising six weeks longer; but then it only rose from three to five inches a day; for, spreading over the land, and entering the canals, though more water may descend than before, yet its rise is less considerable; as after the opening of that canal, the others are opened at fixed times, and those that water the lower grounds the last. These canals are carried along the highest parts of the country, that the water may be conveyed from them to all the lower parts.

This river has, however, one thing that seems peculiar to itself. Other rivers being supplied by rivulets, the ground is lowest near the banks: but as no water flows into the Nile in its passage through Egypt, and as it is necessary that this river should overflow the land, the country of Egypt is generally lower at a distance from the Nile than near it; and in most parts the land seems to have a gradual descent from

the Nile to the foot of the hills, which may be said to begin at those sandy parts already mentioned, as being a mile or two distant from them, which, rising toward the mountains in a gentle ascent, are never overflowed.

Some of the most remarkable particulars in relation to the Nile, are its cataracts in Upper Egypt. Dr. Pococke, and several other authors, have visited some of them; and the last mentioned divine, on approaching the first, says, that he never saw nature discover so rough a face as her appearance in that country. On the E. side of the river nothing is to be seen but rocks; on the W. the hills are either of sand or black rocks; above, to the S. there seems to be a high rocky island; higher up appear rocky cliffs on each side; and below, to the N. are so many rocks that little of the water could be seen. The bed of the Nile is crossed by rocks of granite, which in three places, at some distance from each other, divide the stream, and make three falls at each. The first the doctor came to was the least, and appeared not to exceed three feet: the second, which is a little lower down the river, winds round a large rock, or island, forming two streams. This island is to the N. about twelve feet high; and it is said that at high water the Nile runs over it; but supposing the river to be then five feet higher below the rock, the fall will not exceed seven or eight feet. Farther to the W. are other rocks, and a third stream, which has a greater fall than any of the others.

On the source of this wonderful river and its situation, Mr. Bruce observes, (Travels, vol. iii. page 638) "On Monday the 5th of November, 1770, the day after my arrival at Geesh, the weather perfectly clear, cloudless, and nearly calm, in all respects well adapted to observation, being extremely anxious to ascertain, beyond the power of controversy, the precise spot on the globe that this fountain had so long occupied unknown, I pitched my tent on the North edge of the cliff, immediately above the priest's house, having verified the instrument with all the care possible, both at the zenith and horizon. With a brass quadrant of three feet radius, by two observations of the sun's upper limb and a medium of thirty-three observations of stars, I found its latitude to be $10^{\circ} 59' 25''$ N. though the Jesuits have supposed it 12° N. by a random guess; but this being nearly the latitude of Gondar, the capital from which they set out, shews plainly they knew not the precise latitude of either of these places. On the 7th I found by an immersion of the first satellite of Jupiter, the last visible here before that planet's conjunction with the sun, the longitude of the chief fountain of the Nile to be $36^{\circ} 55' 30''$ E. of the meridian of Greenwich." Mr. Bruce calculates its length at near 1600 miles.

According to Lobo, these famous springs contribute but little to the forming of the Nile, being very inconsiderable until united with larger streams. At the utmost, these springs, even with their powerful auxi-

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liars, ought only to be called one of the sources of the Nile; for more to the westward there is another stream, which rises about 8deg. 15min. N. latitude, and running in a straight course to the N. W. unites with the branch which issues from Lake Tzana, at about 10deg. N. still more to the westward is another branch, which rises about 8deg. N. latitude, and in 34deg. 44min. E. longitude from London; it runs at first due N. and then N. W. and becomes a mighty river, nearly equal to that on the eastward, and is united to it, near Halfai, in 15deg. 40min. N. latitude; two degrees more to the northward the Nile receives another considerable addition. See the chart of the river Nile in Bruce's Travels, quarto edition, volume the 5th, wherein its different branches are supposed to be accurately laid down.

This account can enable us to form no idea of those cataracts described by the ancients, and even by some of the moderns, who inform us, that under the twenty-third degree of latitude, the water of the Nile issues from several huge openings of a high rock into its bed below, falling two hundred feet, with such prodigious noise as to exceed that of the firing of a cannon, or the loudest claps of thunder. The water in its fall resembles a large white sheet about thirty feet in breadth, which in its rapid descent forms a kind of arch, under which people may walk without being wet; and this seems, says our author, to have been formerly the amusement of the neighbouring people, there being several niches and seats in the rock for the convenience of sitting down.

There is also, under the arch made by the waterfall, a kind of plat-form, and some subterraneous grottos, into which people used to retire to cool themselves; but these are now become inaccessible by the breaking in of the water from some fresh gaps of the rock. It is also observable, that the water in its fall below raises a thick mist, which at a distance resembles a cloud; and yet Lucas, who says he saw this cataract, tell us, that the natives shoot it with rafts. This last circumstance appears very improbable; however, the account he has given of it is conformable to the description of the ancients, and particularly of Lucan, *Pharsalia, lib. x.*

Who that beholds thee, Nile, thus gently flow,
With scarce a wrinkle on thy glassy brow,
Can guess thy rage when rocks resist thy force,
And hurl thee headlong in thy downward course;
When spouting cataracts thy torrent pour,
And nations tremble at the deaf'ning roar;
When thy proud waves with indignation rise,
And dash thy foamy fury to the skies?

Rowe.

The accounts of the cataracts given by Dr. Shaw agree with the descriptions of Dr. Pococke and Mr. Norden, and seem to discredit every thing that is marvellous in this relation: for Dr. Shaw assures us, that

they are only ordinary falls of water, like those we frequently meet with in great rivers, where the stream is a little confined: but may not the cataracts farther up the Nile be much higher, and more agreeable to the descriptions of the ancients, than those visited by these gentlemen? This at least seems highly probable.

The whole physical and political existence of Egypt depends upon the Nile; that alone provides for the greatest necessity of animal life, the want of water, so frequently and so distressfully experienced in warm climates. The Nile alone, without the aid of rain, every where supplies vegetation with moisture, the earth, during the three months inundation, imbibing a sufficient quantity of water for the rest of the year. Were it not for this overflowing, only a very small part of the country could be cultivated, and even that would require prodigious labour; it is with reason, therefore, it has been stiled the source of plenty, of happiness, and of life itself. Had Albuquerque, the Portuguese, been able to execute his project, of turning its course from Ethiopia into the Red Sea, this country, now so rich, would have become a savage desert, surrounded by solitudes. If we reflect on the use man makes of his powers, we shall see little reason to regret that Nature has granted him no more!

It is with reason, therefore, that the Egyptians have always professed, and still retain, a religious veneration for the Nile*; but an European must be pardoned, if, on hearing them boast of its beauty, he smiles at their ignorance. Never will these troubled and muddy waters have for him the charm of transparent fountains and limpid streams; never, except from some extraordinary excitement, will a swarthy Egyptian woman, dripping from these yellow and muddy waters, remind him of the bathing Naiads. For six months of the year the water of this river is so thick, that it must have time to settle before it can be drank; and, during the three months which precede the inundation, reduced to an inconsiderable depth, it grows heated, becomes green, fetid, and full of worms, and it is necessary to have recourse to that which has been before drawn, and preserved in cisterns. At all times, people of delicacy take care to perfume it, and cool it by evaporation.

* They called it *holy, blessed, sacred*; and, on the appearance of the new waters, that is, on the opening of the canals, mothers are seen plunging their children into the current, from a belief that these waters have a purifying and divine virtue, such as the ancients attributed to every river.

† Bitter almonds are made use of for this purpose, with which the vessel is rubbed, and the water then becomes really light and good. But nothing but thirst or prejudice, could induce any person to give it the preference to that of our fountains and large rivers, such as the Seine, and the Loire.

‡ Earthen vessels, unglazed, are kept carefully in every apartment, from whence the water continually transpires; this transpiration produ-

Chapter II.

Of the Methods of Culture used by the Egyptians, and the Manner in which the Water of the Nile is raised up to the Land, above the height of the Inundation. Of the Vegetables of Egypt; the Beasts, Birds, Reptiles and Fishes, with a particular description of the Crocodile.

MR. NORDEN observes, that the authors who have given descriptions of Egypt, contented with saying that its fertility is solely derived from the annual inundation of the Nile, have by their silence given occasion to think, that Egypt is a paradise on earth, where the people neither plow nor sow, but every thing is produced as it were spontaneously after the draining of the waters; though there is scarce a country where the land has greater need of culture.

Where the land lies higher than the inundation rises, the people have been taught by necessity to form various methods of raising the water, as at Roletta and Damietta, where the Nile, when at its height, is not much below the surface of the earth: this is done by means of a wheel made with boxes round its circumference, which receive the water, and as the wheel turns round, the boxes empty themselves at the top into a trough made for that purpose. Where the water is too deep to be raised in this manner, they put a cord round the wheel, that reaches down to the water, to the end of which are fastened earthen jars that fill as it goes round, and empty themselves at the top in the same manner as the other; both being turned by oxen. But where the banks are high, the most common way is to make a basin upon them, and fixing in the ground a pole forked at the top, they place another pole by an axle to the top of it. To one end of this last pole they tie a heavy stone, and at the other a rope and a leathern bucket. Two men draw down the bucket into the water, and the weight brings it up, the men directing it, and turning the water into the basin. This basin is frequently made on the side of the bank, and running into another, is raised up higher with the same labour. In Upper Egypt there are sometimes seen five of them, one higher than the other, the uppermost only serving to water the fields.

ces the more coolness in proportion as it is more considerable; for this reason, these vessels are often suspended in passages where there are currents of air, and under the shade of trees. In several parts of Syria they drink the water which has transpired; in Egypt they drink that which remains; besides, in no country is so much water used. The first thing an Egyptian does, on entering his house, is to lay hold of the *kolla*, (the pitcher of water) and take a hearty draught of it; and, thanks to their perpetual perspiration, they feel no inconvenience from the practice.

However, in Lower and Middle Egypt, where canals have been dug, they have no occasion for such severe labour. The water is conveyed by opening sluices, or breaking down banks, through canals cut for that purpose, into large reservoirs, which are made to supply the lower lands as occasions require.

Egypt naturally produces few vegetables, most of the tender plants being destroyed by the heat and inundation; but where the Nile has overflowed, and the land is plowed and sown, it yields a great increase. Egypt, which was anciently the granary of the Roman empire, still produces great quantities of wheat, rice, barley, beans, and other kinds of pulse, with which the neighbouring countries are supplied; besides sugar canes, of which some sugar is made; and likewise melons, dates, figs, cucumbers, and other vegetables which the people eat in hot weather as a cooling food. Upper Egypt supplies most parts of Europe with senna, and coloquinteda grows wild in the sandy grounds; but as Egypt has no common grafts, they supply the want of it by sowing the land with clover, without plowing.

Agriculture, says Savary, was honourable among the ancient Egyptians, which they had rendered most flourishing throughout their empire; witness their immense labours for distributing the waters over the lands. There are still eighty canals, like rivers, several of which are twenty, thirty, and forty leagues in length, receiving and distributing the inundation over the country. Except six, the others are almost all filled up, and are dry when the Nile is low. The grand lakes of Mœris, Behira, and Mareotis, were vast reservoirs to contain the superabundant waters, and afterwards disperse them among the neighbouring plains. They were raised, over the high lands, by means of chain buckets, the invention of which is due to the Egyptians. One ox can turn them, and water a vast field. These machines gave Archimedes, during his voyage in Egypt, the idea of his ingenious screw, which is still in use. Besides these reservoirs, all the towns, a little distance from the Nile, are surrounded by spacious ponds for the convenience of the inhabitants and agriculture. The remains we find of large mounds were to contain the river: they also stopped the torrents of sand, which incessantly tend to cover the face of Egypt. Aqueducts brought the water to the top of mounts, where there were immense cisterns hewed in the rock, and whence they afterwards ran among deserts, which they transformed into fruitful fields. Near Babain are the ruins of one of these aqueducts, running towards Lybia; it bears the majestic stamp of the works of the Egyptians, works not less miraculous, and more useful, than the pyramids and colossal figures of the Thebais. They prevented the ravages of high inundations and supplied the defects of the low ones, thus feeding millions of inhabitants.

Twelve hundred years has this country been subjected to a people who, not farmers themselves, have suffered these great works to perish, and the ignorance of its present government will compleat their destruction. The limits of cultivated Egypt yearly decrease, and sterile lands every

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where accumulate. When the Turks conquered Egypt, in 1517, the lake Mareotis was near the walls of Alexandria, and the canal through which its waters ran to that city was navigable. This lake has disappeared, and the lands it watered, which, according to historians, produced corn, wine, and fruits in abundance, are become deserts, where the melancholy traveller finds neither tree, shrub, nor verdure. The very canal, the work of Alexander, necessary for the subsistence of the city he had built, is almost filled up; it is dry, except when the waters are at the highest point of inundation, and soon becomes so again. Forty years since, a part of the mud which the waters had left was removed, and the stream remained three months longer; were it emptied entirely it would recover its ancient utility. The Pelusiac branch, which ran to the eastern side of the lake of Tanais, or Menzala, is absolutely destroyed, and with it the beautiful province it fertilized. The famous canal begun by Necho, and finished by Ptolemy Philadelphus, was cut from this branch to Aggeroud, the ancient Arshoe, at the extremity of the Red Sea. Fearing that, by opening this communication, this sea, which they supposed eleven feet higher than the Mediterranean, would overflow the country, they formed great locks at its mouth. I think the suspicion was ill founded, since other canals running from the Nile to the Red Sea, have not produced this inconvenience. Immortal works like these, executed by kings whose happiness and fame were the prosperity of their people, have not withstood the despoiling conqueror, and that tyranny which desolates till itself lies buried under the ruins of kingdoms whose foundations it has sapped. The canal of Amrou, the last of the grand labours of Egypt, and which ran from Fostat to Colzoum, extends only four leagues beyond Cairo, and is lost in the lake of the pilgrims. Such is the present state of the country, and we may rest assured that more than one third of the lands formerly cultivated are become deserts, frightful to the traveller.

The spring corn and vegetables are sown in November and December as soon as the Nile is fallen, and sooner where that river does not naturally overflow the ground. This corn consists of wheat, lentils, and barley, that has six rows of grain in one ear; and with this they feed their horses, for they have no oats. They sow beans for their camels, and these the people also eat green, both raw and boiled. They have a kind of vetch little inferior to pea, with one large grain in each pod; they also plant an herb called nill, of which they make a kind of indigo blue.

Egypt seems to have few or no trees that have not been transplanted from other countries: those in their gardens are doubtless exotics, as the cous, or cream-tree, apricots, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, cassia, mosch, a delicious fruit, and the cotton-tree.

The following are the most common trees in Egypt; the sount, which bears a key or pod used instead of bark in tanning of leather, the tamarisk, Pharaoh's fig, the sycamore of the ancients, the palm or date-tree, and another species of the palm, called the dome-tree.

There is no great variety of four-footed beasts ; the cows are large and red, with short horns : the natives make use of oxen to turn the wheel with which they raise the water, and to plow the land. They have also large buffaloes, which are so impatient of heat, that they will stand in the water with only their noses out to breathe ; and when this convenience is not to be had, they will lie all day like swine, wallowing in mud and water.

With respect to the beasts of burden, they have a great number of camels and dromedaries, and the Turks eat the flesh of the young ones as a most delicate dish ; but will not permit it to be eaten by the Christians, probably that the breed may not be destroyed. The horses, particularly those of Upper Egypt, are very fine ones ; but their necks are too short. They never trot, but walk well and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable ; but they cannot perform long journeys, and are capable only of a walking pace in travelling. During the heat of summer, when there is no clover-grass, they are fed with chopped straw and barley. In Cairo, all but persons of rank ride on asses, of which they have a fine large breed ; and there is said to be no less than forty thousand of them in that city.

About Alexandria are great numbers of antelopes, which have longer horns, and are more beautiful than those in other countries. The hares and foxes are of a light colour, but the former are not very common. The tyger and the hyena are seldom seen ; however, there are some near Alexandria.

Among the feathered race, the ostrich bears the pre-eminence ; it is called in Arabic, tir-gimel, or the camel-bird, because in its head, neck, and walk, it resembles the camel. This bird is common in the mountains S. W. of Alexandria ; its fat is sold by the Arabs, and used as an ointment for the rheumatism, palsy, and all cold tumours.

They have here a kind of large domestic hawk, of a brown colour, with a very fine eye. These frequent the tops of houses, where they may be seen with pigeons standing close by them ; but though they are not birds of prey, they eat flesh wherever they find it ; the natives never kill them, for they, as well as their ancestors, seem to entertain a veneration for these birds and also for cats.

The ter-chaous, or messenger bird, would be thought very beautiful were it not so common. It is almost as large as a dove, and is not only finely speckled, but has on the top of its head a tuft of feathers, which it spreads when it alights on the ground. They have also a beautiful white bird, called by the Europeans the field-lion : it resembles a stork, but is not half so large, and is seen about the fields like a tame fowl. They have likewise a large white bird, with black wings, shaped like a raven ; but it is very ugly, and not at all shy : these last live in the same manner as the tame hawk, and are called Pharaoh's hens.

On the islands in the Nile are a great number of ibis, which were held in great veneration by the ancient Egyptians, on account of their delivering the country from the multitude of serpents that breed in the

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ground after the retreat of the Nile. They resemble the crane, and are of a greyish colour, with the wings and tail black.

The Mahometans have the stork in the highest esteem and veneration, it being as sacred among them as the ibis was among the Egyptians, and no less profane would that person be accounted, who should attempt to kill, or only to hurt and molest it. The great regard paid to these birds was at first, perhaps, less occasioned by the service they are of to moist fenny countries, in clearing them of a variety of reptiles and insects, than from the solemn gesticulations they are observed to make whenever they rest upon the ground, or return to their nests: for they first throw their head backward, as it were in a posture of adoration; then strike, as with a pair of castanets, their upper and lower bill together, and afterward prostrate their necks in a suppliant manner quite down to the ground; constantly repeating three or four times the same gesticulations.

In Egypt are also great flocks of wild geese of several kinds, wild ducks, woodcocks, snipes, quails; and among the birds of prey are eagles and vultures.

Here are several sorts of yellow lizards, among which is the worral, which is said to be affected by music; Dr. Shaw says, he has seen several of them keep exact time and motion with the deviles in their circulatory dances, turning when they turned, and stopping when they stopped. This animal, which is of the lizard kind, is four feet long, eight inches broad, and has a forked tongue, which it puts out like a serpent; but it has no teeth, and is a harmless animal, living on lizards and flies. It frequents the grottos and caverns in the mountains on the W. of the Nile, where it sleeps in winter, and is only found during the hot weather.

The vipers of Egypt, which are much esteemed in physic, are of a yellowish colour, like the sand in which they live, and are of two species; one with a kind of horns, which have some resemblance to those of snails, but are of a horny substance; and the others like ours.

There are no shell-fish in the Nile, nor perhaps any of those sorts of fish which are found in the rivers of Europe, except eels and mullets, which last comes at certain seasons from the sea. Of those most esteemed are the ray, which resembles a carp; but is said sometimes to weigh two hundred pounds. The most delicate fish is the kesher, which is only caught in Upper Egypt; it has a long narrow snout, and so small a mouth that one would imagine it can only live by sucking the juice out of the weeds or the ground. In Upper Egypt is a fish called the gurgur, about a foot long; its head is armed with a strong bone; the fin on the back, and those on each side under the gills, are also armed with bone. This fish the inhabitants imagine kills the crocodile.

The hippopotamus, or river horse, seems to be a native of Ethiopia in the upper parts of the Nile, and the present race of Egyptians are entirely unacquainted with it. Nay, the crocodile so rarely appears be-

low the first cataracts, that the sight of it, in Lower Egypt, is as great an object of curiosity there as to the Europeans.

The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both in the form of a lizard; are amphibious animals, which grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet, armed with claws. They have a flat head; their eyes are rather large, and their back is covered with hard scales which are impenetrable by a musket ball.

It is observed of this animal that he has no tongue; he has, however, a fleshy substance fixed all along the lower jaw, which may serve to turn his meat. He has two long teeth at the end of his upper jaw, and answering to them are two holes below to receive them. It is remarkable that the upper jaw only is moveable, and the under one fixed. These animals are very quick sighted; for our author observes, that when he made a circuit to come behind them, they always began to move gently into the water, there being a kind of channel in the head behind each eye, by which the view of objects is conveyed to them from behind. When the crocodile is on land, he is always seen on the low banks of sandy islands near the water, with his head toward it, and if he is disturbed, he walks slowly in and disappears by degrees.

They make a hole about two feet deep in the sand, above the water, and in it lay their eggs, which they cover over, often going to the place, and watching over their young, which run immediately into the water as soon as they are hatched. They lay about fifty eggs, not much larger than those of a goose, which are twenty-five or thirty days in hatching. The people search for the eggs with an iron spike, in order to destroy them.

It need scarcely be intimated, that the tears and alluring voice ascribed by the ancients to the crocodile, to draw persons to him for the purpose of devouring them, is a mere poetical fiction. Nor is there any foundation for the story, that the little bird trechileus lives on the meat it picks from the crocodile's teeth: or for what is said of the ichneumon's destroying the crocodile, by jumping into his mouth, and eating its way out again through his belly. These are traditions of which the learned, who have visited Upper Egypt, can obtain no information.

If a man or beast stands by the river, the crocodiles leap out of the water and seize him with their fore-paws; but if the distance be too great, they make a spring, and endeavour to beat down their prey with their tails.

The most common method of killing them is said to be by shooting them in the belly, where the skin is soft and not covered with scales like the back. The natives destroy the crocodiles by making some animal cry at a distance, and when the crocodile comes out, they thrust a spear, to which a rope is tied, into his body; then letting him retire into the water to spend himself, they afterward draw him out, run a pole into his mouth, and leaping upon his back, tie his jaws together. The people

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say they cannot seize a man in the water, and therefore frequently cross the Nile by swimming, both by themselves and with their cattle, even above the first cataract, where the crocodiles are most numerous.

Strabo observes, that "the people who inhabit the prefecture of Arsinoe revere and regard the crocodile as sacred. The priests preserve one in a lake, for that purpose, and name it *Souchos**, feeding it with bread, meat and wine, in presence of strangers, whom a sight like this fails not to attract. Our host, one of the respectable persons who shewed us the sacred things, conducted us, after dinner, to the lake, taking with him small cakes, roast meat, and a vessel filled with wine. The crocodile repos'd on the bank. The priests approached: one of them opened his jaws, another put in the cakes, meat and wine; after which repast the monster descended peaceably into the water, and swam towards the other side."

The Egyptians honoured the crocodile, because it was consecrated to Typhon, the evil genius, whose fury they dreaded; and imagined they might calm his wrath, and avoid the calamities he inflicted on them, by revering an animal that was the symbol of himself. The eagerness with which the inhabitants of Celebes, at present, seek this monster, the name of Sudarat, or brother, they give him, and the food they carry him, should also have some foundation in the ancient religion of their country.

In that part, where the people are much more savage than in Lower Egypt, Mr. Norden observed several odd methods of crossing the Nile, which they perform without the least apprehension of falling a prey to the crocodiles. Two men were set on a truss of straw, while a cow swimming before, one of them held in one hand her tail, and with the other guided the beast by a cord fastened to her horns. The other man, who was behind, steered with a little oar, by means of which he kept at the same time the balance. The same day our author likewise saw some loaded camels crossing the river. A man swimming before held the bridle of the first camel in his mouth; the second camel was fastened to the tail of the first, and the third to the tail of the second; while another man brought up the rear, and took care that the second and third camels should follow in a row. These simple expedients give us some idea of the manners of the most early ages, before the introduction of arts, or ever man had learned to form vessels to sail upon the water, and cross rivers, lakes and seas.

* This word comes from the Greek. The Egyptian name of the crocodile appears to have been *Chamsah*, which Herodotus calls it, or perhaps *Thamsah* as called by the Arabs.

† The late Sir Joseph Banks relates some curious facts concerning the veneration the people of Celebes have for the crocodile. Hawkesworth's *Voyages*, vol. iii. page 756.

Chapter III.

Of the Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, Education, and Religion of the Inhabitants.

THE Egyptians are an ill-looking people, for though many of their children, when very young, are fair, they are soon rendered swarthy by the sun. They are also very dirty and slovenly, especially the Coptis, who, after washing their hands when they have eaten, wipe them publicly on the great sleeves of their shirts. These Coptis are the descendants of the first Christians of this country, who are said to have been called Coptis from their retiring to Coptus, and the adjacent places, during the first persecutions. The Coptic tongue is a corruption of the ancient Egyptian, and is now a dead language.

The natives are generally inclined to indolence, and take great delight in sitting still and hearing tales, and indeed appear to have been always more fit for a quiet than an active life. This probably may be owing to their being enervated by the heat of the country. They are also envious and mischievous; which prevents their uniting and setting up for themselves. The Mahometan inhabitants are either original natives, who live in the villages, or of the Arab race. The latter are divided into those who are also settled in the villages, and are generally an honest harmless people; and those who live in tents, and chiefly subsist on their cattle, which are principally camels and goats, that feed on small shrubs. The Turks, who are thus named to distinguish them from the Arabs and the original natives of the country, are the governing party, and are remarkable for being most avaricious, and fondest of power. They distinguish themselves from the others by wearing what is strictly the Turkish dress.

The Bedouins, or inhabitants of the deserts*, known to the ancients by the name of Scenites, that is, dwellers in tents. Some of these, dispersed in families, inhabit the rocks, caverns, ruins, and sequestered places where there is water; others, united in tribes, encamp under low and smoaky tents, and pass their lives in perpetual journeying, sometimes on the banks of the river; having no other attachment to the soil than what arises from their own safety, or the subsistence of their flocks. There are tribes of them who arrive every year after the inundation, from the heart of Africa, to profit by the fertility of the country, and who in the spring retire into the depths of the desert; others are stationary in Egypt, where they farm lands, which they sow, and annually change. All of them observe among themselves stated limits, which

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* In Arabic bedoui, formed of *bid*, desert, country without habitations.

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they never pass, on pain of war. They all lead nearly the same kind of life, and have the same manners and customs. Ignorant and poor, the Bedouins preserve an original character distinct from surrounding nations. Peaceful in their camp, they are every where else in a habitual state of war. The husbandmen, whom they pillage, hate them; the travellers, whom they despoil, speak ill of them; and the Turks, who dread them, endeavour to divide and corrupt them. It is calculated, that the different tribes of them in Egypt might form a body of thirty thousand horsemen; but these are so dispersed and disunited, that they are only considered as robbers and vagabonds.

The Mamlouks, says a celebrated writer, born at the foot of mount Caucasus, are distinguished from the other inhabitants by the flaxen colour of their hair, which is entirely different from that of the natives of Egypt. These were found there by the crusaders in the thirteenth century, and called by them Mamelus, or, more correctly, Mamlouks. After remaining almost annihilated for two hundred and thirty years, under the government of the Ottomans, they have found means to regain their consequence.

Most of the children in the country go naked in summer, and many of them do so all the year round.

The most simple dress of the natives has some resemblance to that worn by the ancient Egyptians, who were clothed in linen, and over it had a woollen garment; "and it probably," says Dr. Pococke, "resembles the primitive manner of cloathing." They wear a long shirt and wide sleeves, commonly tied about the middle. The common people have over it a brown woollen shirt, and those of superior rank a long cloth coat, and over that a long blue shirt; but in the dress of ceremony, they wear a white shirt instead of a blue one, which, in Upper Egypt, they put on upon festival days, and when they visit their superiors. In the lower parts of the country they use a garment of the same form made of black woollen, which is sometimes left open before, and the people of rank have them of cloth, adorned with furs. Most of them also wear under all a pair of linen drawers, but do not put the shirt into them.

It is almost a general custom among the descendants of the Arabs, and the native Mahometans, to wear in winter a white or brown blanket, and in summer a blue and white cotton sheet. This the Christians in the country also constantly use, wrapping it round their bodies over the left shoulder, and under their right arm, which is left free; and in some parts of the country young people, and the poorer sort wear no other cloathing.

The Christians of the country, with the Janizaries, the Arabs, and the Egyptians, wear slippers of red leather, while those of the Jews are blue. Within doors the Turks and Christians, out of frugality, wear a kind of wooden clogs, some of which are made very fine. People, in short, are distinguished by the dress of their head and feet, and are fined if they do not follow the custom: hence none but foreign Chris-

tians are permitted to wear yellow slippers. The dress for the head is either the turban, or a red woollen cap that fits close to the head, which is worn by the ordinary people among the Coptis and the Arabs.

The women have their drawers, and most of their other garments, of silk ; all but their outward dress is shorter than the men's, and their sleeves hang down very low. They wear on their heads a white woollen skull-cap, and over it an embroidered handkerchief, round which their hair is plaited. Over all they have a large black veil. As it is esteemed indecent to shew too much of the face, they generally cover the mouth and one eye, if not the whole face. Women of ordinary rank have a large garment like a surplice, of blue linen or cotton, and before their faces hangs a kind of bib joined to their head-dress by a tape over the nose ; thus hiding all the lower part of the face, and leaving the eyes uncovered, which gives them a very odd appearance. The women among the vulgar, especially the blacks, wear rings in their noses, adorned with glass beads, and have ear-rings, three inches in diameter, that come round their ears, and are adorned with stones : they likewise wear stone rings on their fingers, which among the ordinary people are of lead, while those in better circumstances have them of gold. The bracelets are generally of wire, some are of plain iron or brass, but others have them of gold finely jointed. The women among the vulgar paint their lips and the tip of their chin with blue, and those of superior rank paint their eye-lids black, and their nails and feet yellow.

Education in Egypt chiefly consists in learning to read and write, which the Coptis generally obtain, together with book-keeping ; but few of the Arabs and native Mahometans can read, except those bred to the law, or educated for some post. The best education is given to the slaves, who often understand Arabic and Turkish, and frequently write both. They are also well skilled in riding, shooting, and throwing the dart ; which are esteemed great accomplishments.

With respect to the religion of Egypt, the Coptic is that of the native Christians. The Greeks are also very numerous at Cairo and Damietta ; but there are not many of them in the other parts of the country, except a few merchants in the principal towns. The Christian religion would be at a still lower ebb, did not the people find it convenient to have Coptic stewards, who are well acquainted with business, and very expert at keeping accounts, which they do in a sort of Coptic characters that none but themselves understand. They are the protectors of the Christians in every village.

The Coptis, however, seem extremely irreverent and careless in their devotions ; yet they spend the night before Sundays and festivals in their churches, which they no sooner enter than they pull off their slippers and kiss the pavement. They pass their holidays in sauntering about, sitting under shady trees in summer, and under their walls in winter. They seem to imagine that religion consists in repeating their long services, and in the strict observance of their numerous fasts. They use the liturgies of St. Basil, St. Gregory, and St. Cyril ; but the first being

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shortest is oftenest read. However, both the priests and people are extremely ignorant with respect to the doctrines of their religion; the former perform the service in the Coptic language, which they generally understand very imperfectly, but they have books of their liturgy with an Arabic interpretation.

The Coptis are said to fast seven months in the year. The children are espoused at seven or eight years of age, and consummated at eleven or twelve; and a little before that time the males are circumcised.—They easily procure divorces on account of adultery, long sickness, or disagreement; and, at their desire, the patriarch or bishop, gives them leave to marry again: but, if this be refused, they go to the cady, who will do it readily, and this is practised by the Christians all over Turkey.

At baptism the child is plunged three times into the water, and then the priest dips the end of his finger into the consecrated wine, and puts it into the child's mouth; but if the child happens to be sick, instead of being immersed in water, it is laid on a cloth near the font, and the priest, dipping his hands in the water, rubs it all over him; but if the infant be too ill to be brought to church, they then only anoint him, which they say is good baptism.

They administer the sacrament in both kinds on Sundays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, on all their numerous holidays, and every day in Lent; and when the priest, in reading the service, mentions Peter's cutting off the ear of the high priest's servant, the people cry out, Well done Peter. They abstain from swine's flesh, from blood, and things strangled; pray for the dead, and prostrate themselves before pictures; but have no images, except a crucifix. They administer extreme unction, and at the same time give absolution, anointing all the people present, that the evil spirit may not enter into them.

Though the religion of the Coptis in many respects resembles that of the Greeks, they bear an implacable hatred to them, and have generally as little regard for the Europeans, which proceeds, in a great measure, from the endeavours of those of the Romish church to make converts of them; for they seldom distinguish between those of different religions, but include all under the name of Franks.

The Jews are very numerous in Egypt; and, as in times of paganism they were afraid of drinking wine offered to idols, they still have here all the drink made by their own people, sealed up and sent to them. This custom they observe throughout all the East. There is a particular sect among them who live by themselves, and have a separate synagogue; these are the ancient Essenes, who are now called Charaims. They are distinguished by their regard to the five books of Moses, which they strictly observe according to the letter, without receiving any written traditions.

The Turks in Egypt are deeply tinctured with the doctrine of predestination, which not only inspires them with courage, but makes them display great magnanimity, when thrown from the height of power into a state of poverty and distress, consoling themselves by saying, It is the

will of God. They indeed behave better in adversity than in prosperity; for though persons in high rank assume a becoming gravity, and confer favours in a very graceful manner, they are greedy of money; for nothing is to be done with them without a bribe; and they are apt to fancy that the greatest villains are expiated as soon as they have washed their hands and feet, which is their preparation for prayer. Religion is fashionable among them; they pray in the most public places, and when on a visit will call for water to wash, and then perform their devotions; and yet their words generally pass for nothing, either in their promises or professions of friendship. Opium is less used by them than formerly. The Arabs seldom drink wine or strong liquors, and the common people pound leaves of green hemp, make them up into a pill, which they swallow, in order to render them cheerful. They have a high opinion of the magic art, and think there is a great virtue in charms and talismans.

Though the poorest Mahometan thinks himself superior to the richest Christian, yet the Arabs and people of the country behave with great civility. The Turks likewise treat their superiors with the utmost decorum and respect, and one of great dignity readily holds the stirrup to another who is still greater.

The way of saluting, as they pass, is by stretching out the right hand, bringing it to the breast, and a little inclining to the head. The extraordinary salute is kissing the hand and putting it to the head. When they visit a superior they kiss his hand; but if he be greatly so, they kiss the hem of his garment. When they take any thing from a superior, or if any thing is sent by such an one, they kiss it, and put it to their foreheads; and when they promise to serve and protect you, they put their hand to their turban.

Such is the occasional condescension of the great men in this country, that an Arab prince will frequently dine in the street before his door, and calling to all that pass, and even to the beggars, invite them to sit down, by crying, in their manner, "In the name of God." Upon this the poorest wretch sits down and dines with his prince; and, when he has done, retires, saying, "God be praised."

The Mahometans have a most extraordinary veneration for idiots, whom they suppose to be actuated by a divine spirit, and consider as a kind of saints. Hence, all possible marks of respect are shewn to such; they are received into every house, and feasted at every table. Though naked, they are every where caressed as saints of a superior order, the people flock about them with an air of reverence, and in the public streets, the women kneel before them, and, as among the Gentoos of India, kiss what other people conceal, as the most effectual means of being rendered fruitful. All these circumstances are mentioned by authors of the greatest reputation. A large mosque at Cairo is sacred to idiots, with buildings adjoining to it, and great revenues appropriated for their support. As these are recommended by their want of reason, so are the dervishes by their want of money; for every Turk esteems poverty as a great degree of perfection in every one but himself.

Both the Turks and Egyptians are very frugal in their provisions, for the latter seldom eat meat, and the tables of the great are of little expense, considering the number of their attendants, in which they are very extravagant; for it is not uncommon for them to have fifty or sixty slaves, and many other servants and attendants. The cloathing of the slaves is, however, very expensive, as are also their horses, of these it being common to have from fifty to two hundred.

People of the middle rank usually rise at break of day, and go to the mosque, then to the coffee-house, and very late to their shops, which they shut up by four in the afternoon; and people of rank spend most part of the day in paying and receiving visits. On Sundays, Tuesdays, and Thursdays, they attend the bafha's divan, or court, for these are the days of business; and on Fridays they generally go to the mosque. On other days they commonly go to the meidans, or public places out of town, where they see their slaves ride, shoot, or throw the dart; and in the mean time regale themselves with coffee and a pipe. They are perpetually in company when they are not in the women's apartment, as they are from twelve at noon till four, and from supper time till next morning.

They have public bagnios for men and women, and persons of distinction have them in their houses. None beside people of the middle rank resort to the coffee-houses. Some of them have music at certain hours of the day, and in others a man tells some diverting story, or rehearses an Arabian tale.

Chapter IV.

Of the Revolutions in Egypt and its present Government. The Revolt and Death of Ali Bey. Continuation from the Death of Ali Bey, to the year 1785—From Volney.

THE Egyptians, like the Chinese, and many other of the eastern nations, pretend that they had a race of kings, the first of whom reigned many thousand years before the flood. However, it is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of Pharaohs sat on the throne in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyses II. king of Persia, conquered Egypt, 525 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of this race of princes those wonderful structures were raised, which cannot now be viewed without astonishment. After the death of Cambyses, Egypt continued under the Persian government. At length Alexander the Great having conquered the Persian dominions, it became subject to that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria.

He was succeeded by Ptolemy, the son of Lagus, 325 years before the birth of Christ, who again rendered it an independent kingdom. Ptolemy Philadelphus, his son, collected the Alexandrian library, said to consist of seven hundred thousand volumes; and the same prince caused that translation of the Scriptures to be made, which is now distinguished by the name of the Septuagint. His successors ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line it continued between two and three hundred years, until Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne, in whose reign Egypt became a Roman province, and thus continued till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years.

The caliphs of Babylon were the sovereigns of Egypt, till about the year 807, when the Egyptians set up a caliph of their own, called the caliph of Cairo, to whom the Saracens of Africa and Spain were subject; but the governors of the provinces under the caliphs of Babylon and Cairo, soon wrested the civil power out of their hands, who had hitherto enjoyed an absolute controul in affairs of religion and government, and left them only the shadow of sovereignty.

At length, about the year 1160, Assareddin, general of Norradin, the Saracen sultan of Damascus, subdued the kingdom of Egypt, and was succeeded by his son, the famous Saladin, who also reduced the kingdoms of Damascus, Mesopotamia, and Palestine, under his dominion, and about the year 1190 took Jerusalem from the Christians. This prince established a body of troops in Egypt, which like the present janizaries, was composed of the sons of Christians taken in war, or purchased of the Tartars, to whom he gave the name of Mamlouks. The posterity of Saladin sat on the throne till the year 1242, when the Mamlouks deposed Eimutan, and gave the crown to one of their own officers, named Turquemenius. This was the first king of the race of the Mamlouks, who engaged in continual wars with the Christians in Syria and Palestine, till sultan Araphus drove them entirely out of the Holy Land. At length Selim, a Turkish emperor, killed the sultan, and conquered Egypt in 1515; and the Turks have had the possession of it ever since.

Ever since Egypt has been thus subject to the Ottoman empire, it has been divided into twenty-four provinces, each of which is governed by a sanguick, or bey; the major part of these beys reside at Cairo, where always once a week, and sometimes oftener, they sit in council, called by them the Divan. The sheick belled is the president of the council, and executive member of the government; his office is somewhat familiar to the doge of Venice, with rather more authority.—*Colonel Capper's Travels.*—All the lands in Egypt are indeed held of the grand seignior, and still pay him an annual rent, and a fine upon every descent.

The basha or sheick belled has his guards, or bodies of spahis and janizaries, like the grand seignior at Constantinople; but, as many of

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these have estates in the country, which is under the absolute power of the beys, the basha, if he happens to be at variance with those beys, cannot depend on their protection. Indeed the beys are said to be perpetually laying plots to destroy each other; and, upon these occasions, the basha does not fail to take that side which is most likely to promote his own interest. Dr. Pococke observes, that neither the basha nor any of the beys, scruple taking off their enemies by poison or the dagger, of which he gives the following instance:—A basha, knowing that the bey, whom he would willingly dispatch, was jealous of his designs, ordered his servants, when he came to visit him, to pour his own coffee and that of the bey's out of the same pot. The bey, seeing this, concluded that it could not be poisoned, and drank it off; but the slave, on giving the coffee to the basha, made a false step, as he was ordered, and spilt it on the floor; upon which the bey too late perceived the basha's treachery.

The children of the beys cannot inherit either the rank or the property of their fathers, nor even be appointed to any office, which it is deemed proper for a bey to hold. It is true, the divan, on the death of a bey, appropriates a part of his property to the maintenance of his family; but the remainder goes to his casheef or lieutenant, who generally succeeds both to his office and estate. These casheefs are Georgian or Circassian slaves, whom the bey has bought and adopted when young, and of course educated with great care and tenderness, with a view to leave them grateful guardians to their orphan children.—*Colonel Capper's Travels.*—Thus the dignity of bey seems to be conferred only on Georgian or Circassian slaves; who are induced to treat the children of their predecessors with kindness, from the consideration that their own children will, in like manner, become dependent on their successors.

The revenues which the grand seignior receives from Egypt arise from the annual rents and customs; also from a poll tax on Christians and Jews. The rents of the villages are fixed, and this is the treasure which is annually sent to Constantinople, and amounts in the whole to six thousand purses, each purse being eighty pounds sterling. This is a very easy rent, and when the Nile does not rise sixteen cubits, even this is not paid.

In the year 1770, Ali Bey, a man equally distinguished for his mental and bodily powers, having rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt, openly threw off the Turkish yoke, and mounted the throne of the ancient sultans, being encouraged to this bold attempt by the weak and distressed state of the Ottoman empire: nor did his ambition stop here, but he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had been subject to the ancient sultans. No sooner had he thus become a sovereign prince, than his views were directed to make Egypt what it had formerly been, the great centre of commerce. This patriotic usurper was opposed by his brother-in-law, Mahomed Bey Aboudaab, the husband of his sister, whom he had advanced from the condition of a slave to the dignity of a bey. Aboudaab, so effectually served

the cause of the Turks, that he compelled Ali Bey to retire out of Egypt into Syria; who returning the next year at the head of 30,000 men, was totally defeated, near Grand Cairo, in May, 1773, his army was cut to pieces, and himself taken prisoner; soon after which he died. This event again brought Egypt under subjection to the Porte.

Since the death of Ali Bey, the fate of the Egyptians has not been bettered; his successors have not even imitated what was laudable in his conduct; Mohammad Bey, who succeeded him in April 1773, during a reign of two years, displayed nothing but the ferocity of a robber, and the baseness of a traitor. To colour his ingratitude towards his patron, he at first pretended to be only the defender of the rights of the sultan, and the minister of his will: he therefore remitted to Constantinople the tribute which had been interrupted for the last six years, and took the customary oath of unlimited obedience. He renewed his submission at the death of Ali Bey; and, under pretext of proving his loyalty to the sultan, demanded permission to make war on the Arab Dáher. The Porte, who would gladly have solicited this, was happy to permit it as a favour: Mohammad was invested with the title of Pacha of Cairo, and every thing immediately prepared for his expedition. It may be asked what interest an Egyptian governor could have in destroying the Arab Dáher, in rebellion in Syria? But refined views of policy had no more share in this than in other measures. It originated merely in private resentment. Mohammad Bey could not forget a reproachful letter written to him by Dahér, at the time of the revolution of Damascus, nor the part the Shaik had taken against him in his quarrel with Ali Bey. To hatred was added the prospect of plunder. Ibrahim Sabbar*, Dáher's minister, was reputed to possess prodigious wealth; and the Egyptian, could he destroy Dáher, hoped equally to gratify his avarice and revenge.

He did not hesitate, therefore to undertake this war, and made his preparations with all the activity which hatred inspires. He provided himself with an extraordinary train of artillery, procured foreign gunners, and gave the command of them to an Englishman, named Robinson; he brought from Suez a cannon sixteen feet in length, which had long remained useless; and, at length, in the month of February, 1776, appeared in Palestine, with an army equal to that he had formerly headed against Damascus. On his approach, Dáher's forces, which occupied Gaza, despairing of being able to defend it, retired; he took possession of it, and without stopping marched against Yafa. This town, which had a garrison, and whose inhabitants were all injured to war, shewed more resolution than Gaza, and determined to stand the siege. The history of this siege would well exemplify the ignorance of these countries in the art of war, as a few of the principal particulars will sufficiently evince.

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* Sabbar, with the *r* pronounced thick, which signifies dyer; with the ordinary *r*, it signifies plumber.

Yafa, the ancient Joppa, is situated on a part of the coast the general level of which is very little above the sea. The city is built on an eminence, in the form of a sugar-loaf, in height about one hundred and thirty feet perpendicular. The houses, distributed on the declivity, appear rising above each other, like the steps of an amphitheatre. On the summit is a small citadel which commands the town; the bottom of the hill is surrounded by a wall without a rampart, of twelve or fourteen feet high, and two or three in thickness. The battlements at the top are the only tokens by which it is distinguishable from a common garden-wall. This wall, which has no ditch, is environed by gardens, where lemons, oranges, and citrons, in this light soil, grow to a most prodigious size. Such was the city Mohammad undertook to besiege. It was defended by five or six hundred Safadians, and as many inhabitants, who at sight of the enemy, armed themselves with their sabres and muskets; they had likewise a few brass cannon, twenty-four pounders, without carriages; these they mounted, as well as they could, on timbers prepared in a hurry; and, supplying the place of experience and address by hatred and courage, replied to the summons of the enemy by menaces and musket-shot.

Mohammad, finding he must have recourse to force, formed his camp before the town; but was so little acquainted with the business in which he was engaged, that he advanced within half cannon shot. The bullets, which showered upon the tents, apprized him of his error; he retreated, and, by making a fresh experiment, was convinced he was still too near; at length he discovered the proper distance, and set up his tent, in which the most extravagant luxury was displayed: around it, without any order, were pitched those of the Mamlouks, while the Barbary Arabs formed huts with the trunks and branches of the orange and lemon trees, and the followers of the army arranged themselves as they could: a few guards were distributed here and there, and without making a single entrenchment, they called themselves encamped.

Batteries were now to be erected; and a spot of rising ground was made choice of, to the south-eastward of the town, where, behind some garden walls, eight pieces of cannon were pointed, at two hundred paces from the town, and the firing began, notwithstanding the musquetry of the enemy, who, from the tops of the terraces, killed several of the gunners. This conduct will appear so singular in Europe, that the truth of it may be, perhaps, called in question; but these things passed eleven years ago; I have been on the spot, have seen many who were eye-witnesses, and I esteem it a duty, neither to alter for the better or the worse, facts, by which the character of a nation may so well be estimated.

It is evident that a wall, only three feet thick, and without a rampart, must soon have a large breach made in it; and the question was, not how to mount, but how to get through it. The Mamlouks were for doing it on horseback; but they were made to comprehend that this was impossible; and they consented, for the first time, to march on foot.

It must have been a curious sight to see them, with their huge breeches of thick Venetian cloth, embarrassed with their tucked up breeches, their crooked sabres in hand, and pistols hanging to their sides, advancing, and tumbling among the ruins of the wall. They imagined they had conquered every difficulty when they had surmounted this obstacle; but the besieged, who formed a better judgment, waited till they had arrived at the empty space between the city and the wall; there they assailed them from the terraces, and the windows of the houses, with such a shower of bullets, that the Mamlouks did not so much as think of setting them on fire, but retired, under a persuasion that the breach was utterly impracticable, since it was impossible to enter it on horseback. Morad Bey brought them several times back to the charge, but in vain.

Six weeks passed in this manner, and Mohammad was distracted with rage, anxiety, and despair. The besieged, however, whose numbers were diminished by the repeated attacks, and who did not see that any succours were to be expected from Acre, became weary of defending alone the cause of Daher. The Mussulmen, especially, complained that the Christians, regarding nothing but their prayers, were more in their churches than the field of battle. Some persons began to treat with the enemy, and it was proposed to abandon the place, on the Egyptians giving hostages. Conditions were agreed on, and the treaty might be considered as concluded, when, in the midst of the security occasioned by that belief, some Mamlouks entered the city; numbers followed them, and attempted to plunder; the inhabitants defended themselves, and the attack recommenced: the whole army then rushed into the town, which suffered all the horrors of war: women and children, young and old, all were cut to pieces; and Mohammad, equally mean and barbarous, caused a pyramid, formed of the heads of these unfortunate sufferers, to be raised as a monument of his victory*. It is said the number of these exceeded twelve hundred. This catastrophe, which happened the 19th of May, 1776, spread terror through the country. Shaik Daher himself fled from Acre, the government of which he left to his son Ali, whose intrepidity is still celebrated in Syria, but whose glory is tarnished by his frequent rebellions against his father. Ali imagined that Mohammad would pay respect to the treaty he had made with him; but the Mamlouk being arrived at the gates of Acre, declared, the price of his friendship must be the head of Daher himself. Ali, finding himself deceived, refused to commit this parricide, and abandoned the town to the Egyptians, who gave it up to be plundered. The French merchants, with difficulty, procured an exemption, and soon saw themselves in most imminent danger. Mohammad, informed that the wealth of Ibrahim, Kiaya of Daher, had been deposited with them, declared that, unless it was instantly delivered up, they should all be put to death. The ensuing Sunday was the day appointed for this terrible research, when fortune happily freed them and Syria from the impending danger; for Mo-

* See Memoirs of Baron de Tott, Part IV.

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hammad was seized with a malignant fever, and died, after two days illness, in the prime of his age*.

The Christians of Syria are persuaded his death was a punishment of the prophet Elias, whose church, on Mount Carmel, he had violated. They even affirm that the prophet appeared to him several times in the form of an old man, and that Mohammad was afterwards continually exclaiming—"Take from me that old man, who distresses and terrifies me." But they who saw this General in his last moments, have reported at Cairo, to persons worthy of credit, that this vision, the effects of a delirium, was caused by the consciousness of some private murders; indeed, the death of Mohammad may easily be accounted for from natural causes, and is to be attributed to the known unhealthiness of the climate, excessive heat, immoderate fatigue, and the anxiety occasioned by the siege of Yafa. It may not be improper to remark, in this place that were we to write the memoirs of modern times, as dictated by the Christians of Syria and Egypt, they would no less abound in prodigies and apparitions, than the histories of antiquity.

The death of Mohammad was no sooner known than this whole army made a precipitate retreat, similar to that of Damascus, and tumultuously took the road to Egypt. Morad Bey, who had acquired great credit by the favour of Mohammad, hastened to regain Cairo, that he might be enabled to dispute the supreme command with Ibrahim Bey. The latter also a freed-man and favourite of the deceased, no sooner learnt the state of affairs, than he took measures to secure an authority with which he had been entrusted in the absence of his patron. Every appearance threatened open war; but the two rivals, when each came to consider the power and resources of the other, found themselves so equal as to make them dread the issue of a combat. They determined therefore on peace, and entered into an agreement, by which the authority was to be divided, on condition that Ibrahim should retain the title of Shaik-el-Beled; this arrangement was dictated by their common interest. Since the death of Ali Bey, the Beys and the Cachefs, who owed their promotion to his house,† had repined in secret at seeing all the authority passed into the hands of a new faction: the power possessed by Mohammad, formerly their equal, had hurt their pride, and that of his slaves seemed to them still more insupportable: they resolved, therefore, to shake off this yoke, and entered into intrigues and cabals, which terminated in a union of the parties under the title of the house of Ali Bey. The chiefs were Hassan Bey, formerly governor of Djedda, and surnamed on that account, El-djeddaoui; and his colleague, Ismael, the only remaining bey of those created by Ibrahim Kiaya. These confederates conducted their plot so well that Morad and Ibrahim were obliged to abandon Cairo, and retire into the Said, where they were exiled; but,

* In the month of June, 1776.

† That is to say, of whom he had been the patron: among the Mamlouks, the freed-man is called the child of the house.

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being soon reinforced by the refugees, who joined them, they returned, and routed their enemies, who were three times their number. Ismael and Hassan, expelled in their turn, fled into the Said, where they still remain. Morad and Ibrahim, jealous of this party, have made several efforts to destroy it, without success. They at last granted to the rebels a district above Djirdja: but the Mamlouks, who continually long for the luxuries of Cairo, having made some movements in 1783, Morad Bey thought it necessary to make a fresh attempt to exterminate them, and I arrived at the time he was making his preparations. His adherents, dispersed along the Nile, stopped all the boats they met, and staff-in-hand, forced the wretched proprietors to follow them to Cairo. Every body fled from a service which was to produce them no profit. In the city a contribution of five hundred thousand dahlers* was imposed upon commerce; the bakers and different tradesmen were compelled to furnish their commodities below prime cost, and all these extortions, so odious in Europe, were deemed mere matters of course in Egypt.

Every thing was ready in the beginning of April, and Morad set out for the Said. The advices from Constantinople, and the gazettes of Europe, which re-echoed them, represented this expedition, at the time, as an important war, and the force of Morad as a powerful army; and it was so relatively to the forces he could raise and the situation of Egypt; but it is no less true that it did not exceed two thousand horsemen. To observe the constant falsification of news at Constantinople one would believe either that the Turks of the capital are wholly ignorant of the affairs of Egypt and Syria, or that they wish to impose on the Europeans. The little communication there is between them and these remote provinces of the empire, renders the former supposition more probable than the latter. On the other hand, it should seem as if our merchants, who reside in the different factories, might procure us authentic information; but they, shut up in their kans, as in prisons, concern themselves but little with what is foreign to their commerce, and content themselves with laughing at the newspapers they receive from Europe. Sometimes they have attempted to rectify these errors; but their information was so ill employed, that they have abandoned so troublesome and unprofitable an undertaking.

Morad, leaving Cairo, led his cavalry, by forced marches, along the river; his baggage and stores followed him in boats; and the north wind, which is always most prevalent, was favourable to his designs. The exiles, to the number of five hundred, were posted above Djirdja. They no sooner were apprized of the enemy's approach, than they became a prey to dissension; some were for fighting, and others advised to capitulate; several of them even adopted the latter measure, and surrendered to Morad Bey; but Hassan and Ismael, continuing inflexible, removed up the river towards Asouan, followed by about two hundred and

* Two million, six hundred and twenty-five thousand livres (105,375*l.*) Sterling.

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fifty horse. Morad pursued them almost to the cataract, where they took post so advantageously, on rocky precipices, that the Mamlouks, utterly ignorant how to conduct a war of posts, held it impossible to force them. Besides, Morad, dreading lest too long an absence from Cairo might give encouragement to new projects, hastened to return thither, and the exiles, delivered from their embarrassment, returned likewise to their station in the Said.

In a society where the passions of individuals are not directed to one general end, where each man, attentive only to himself, considers the uncertainty of the next day, merely as a motive to improve the advantage of the moment; where the chiefs, impressing no sentiment of respect, are unable to maintain subordination; in such a society, a fixed and regular state of affairs is impossible; and the incessant jarring of the incoherent parts must give a perpetual vibration to the whole machine: this is what continually happens among the body of Mamlouks at Cairo. Scarcely was Morad returned when a new combination of interests excited new troubles; besides his faction and those of Ibrahim, and the house of Ali Bey, there were at Cairo other beys, allied to other houers. These beys, who, from their individual weakness, were neglected by the ruling beys, thought proper, in the month of July, 1783, to unite their hitherto detached forces, and form a party, which also had its pretensions to sovereign power. This league, however, was discovered too soon, and the leaders, to the number of five, found themselves unexpectedly exiled to the Delta. To this order they feigned submission; but they had scarcely left the city before they took the route of the Said, the usual and convenient asylum of all the malcontents: they were pursued to no purpose for a day, through the desert of the Pyramids; but they escaped both the Mamlouks and Arabs, and arrived safe at Miniah, where they took up their residence.

This village, situated forty leagues above Cairo, on the banks of the Nile, which it commands, was well calculated to promote their designs. Masters of the river, they could stop every thing which came from the Said, and they availed themselves of this advantage; the corn, annually sent from that province at this season, was a favourable circumstance: this they seized—and Cairo, deprived of provisions, was in danger of a famine, while the beys, and others, whose lands lay in or beyond the province of Fayoum, no longer received their revenues, as the exiles had laid them under contribution. To remove these evils, a new expedition was necessary. Morad Bey, fatigued with the former, refused to undertake a second; and Ibrahim Bey took it on himself. In the month of August, notwithstanding the Ramadan, the preparations were begun; all the boats and their owners were seized on, as before. Contributions were levied, and the dealers compelled to supply the troops.

At length, in the beginning of October, Ibrahim set out with an army which was thought formidable, since it consisted of about three thousand cavalry. It was resolved to go down the Nile, the waters of the inundation having not yet left the whole country, and the ground continu-

ing to be marshy. In a few days the armies came in sight of each other ; but Ibrahim, who had not the same fondness for war with Morad, did not attack the confederates ; he entered into a negociation, and concluded a verbal treaty, the conditions of which were the return of the Beys, and their re-establishment. Morad, who suspected some plot against himself, was much dissatisfied with this convention ; distrust took place more than ever between him and his rival ; and the arrogance displayed by the exiles, in a general Divan, still more increased his fears. He thought himself betrayed, and, to secure himself from treachery, set out from Cairo with his adherents, and retired into the Said. Open war was expected to be the consequence, but Ibrahim temporized, and, at the end of four months, Morad advanced to Djiza, as if to decide the quarrel by a battle.

For five-and-twenty days the two parties, separated by the river, remained opposite each other, without attempting any thing. A treaty was proposed, but Morad, dissatisfied with the conditions, and too weak to dictate others, returned into the Said, whither he was followed by deputies, who, after four months negociation, at length succeeded in bringing him back to Cairo : the conditions stipulated were, that he should continue to share the authority with Ibrahim, and that the five beys should be deprived of their possessions. These beys, perceiving they were given up by Ibrahim, took to flight : Morad pursued them, and the Arabs of the desert, having taken them, he brought them back to Cairo, that they might be under his eye. Peace now seemed established ; but what had passed between the two chiefs had too clearly manifested their respective views, to suffer them to continue friends ; and each, well convinced that his rival was only watching an opportunity to destroy him, kept constantly on his guard, either to avoid, or endeavour a surprise.

These secret machinations obliged Morad Bey again to quit Cairo, in 1784, but forming his camp close to the gates, he appeared so determined, that Ibrahim, terrified in his turn, fled with his partizans into the Said, where he remained till March 1785, when, in consequence of a new treaty, he returned to Cairo, where he now shares, as formerly, the supreme authority with his rival, until some fresh intrigue shall afford him an opportunity of taking his revenge. Such is the summary of the revolutions which have taken place in Egypt for some years past. I have not circumstantially related the various incidents of these events, because, not to mention their uncertainty, they can neither interest nor convey information. The whole is a tissue of cabals, intrigues, treachery, and murders, which could only weary the reader in the repetition ; it is sufficient if he is acquainted with the leading facts, and is enabled from them to form just ideas of the manners and political state of the country, which subject I shall proceed to discuss more amply.

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Chapter V.

Present State of Egypt—From the same.

SINCE the revolution of Ibrahim Kiaya, and especially since the revolt of Ali Bey, the Ottoman power has become more precarious in Egypt than in any other province. It is true the Porte still retains there a *pacha*; but this *pacha*, confined and watched in the castle of Cairo, is rather the prisoner of the *Mamlouks*, than the representative of the sultan. He is deposed, exiled, or expelled at pleasure; and on the mere summons of a herald, clothed in black*, must descend from his high station. Some *pachas*, chosen expressly for that purpose by the Porte, have endeavoured, by secret intrigues, to recover the power formerly annexed to their title; but the *bey*s have rendered all such attempts so dangerous, that they now submit quietly to their three years captivity, and confine themselves to the peaceable enjoyment of their salary and emoluments.

The *bey*s, however apprehensive, of driving the Porte to adopt some violent measure, dare not declare their independence. Everything continues to be transacted in the name of the sultan; his orders are received, as they express it, *on the head and on the eyes*: that is with the greatest respect; but this ridiculous appearance of reverence is never followed by obedience. The tribute is frequently intermitted, and always undergoes great deductions. Various expences are carried to account, such as the maintenance of the canals, and the carriage of the rubbish of Cairo to the sea, the pay of the troops, the repair of the mosques, &c. &c. which are all so many false and pretended charges. Deceit is practised respecting the degree of inundation; and nothing short of the dread inspired by the Turkish Caravelles, which come annually to Damietta and Alexandria, could procure the contribution of rice and grain: even in this too, means are found to diminish the effective supplies, by a collusion with those appointed to receive them. On the other hand, the Porte, abiding by her usual policy, is blind to all these abuses, well knowing, that to correct them will require expensive efforts, and possibly an open war, in which the dignity of the empire might suffer considerably. Other, and more urgent affairs, have, besides, forced the Turks, for some years past, to collect all their forces towards the North. Obliged to bestow all their attention on their immediate safety in Constantinople, they leave the restoration of their authority in the distant provinces to time and the course of events. They

* This officer is named *Caracoulouk*,

† The formulary of deposition consists in the word *enzel*, that is, descend from the castle.

take care, however, to foment divisions among the rival parties, that none of them may acquire an established power; and this method has been found equally beneficial to the state, and advantageous to the great officers, who derive large profits from the rebels, by selling them their influence and protection. The present admiral, Hafan Pacha, has more than once availed himself of this practice, so as to obtain considerable sums from Ibrahim and Morad*.

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Chapter VI.

Military Constitution and Government of the Mamlouks—From the same

THE Mamlouks, on obtaining the government of Egypt, adopted measures which seem to secure to them the possession of the country. The most efficacious is the precaution they have taken to degrade the military corps of the Azabs and Janissaries: These two bodies, which were formerly the terror of the Pacha, are now as insignificant as himself. Of this the corrupt and wretched government of the Turks has alone been the cause; for, previous to the insurrection of Ibrahim Kiaya, the number of Turkish troops, which should consist of forty thousand men, infantry and cavalry, had been reduced to less than half that number, by the avarice of their officers, who diverted the pay to their own use. After Ibrahim, Ali Bey completely destroyed their consequence. He first displaced all the officers who gave him umbrage; left unfilled the places that became vacant; deprived the commanders of all influence; and so degraded all the Turkish troops, that at this day the Janissaries, the Azabs, and the five other corps, are only a rabble of artizans and vagabonds, who guard the gates of those who pay them, and tremble in the presence of the Mamlouks, as much as the populace of Cairo. The whole military force of Egypt really consists in the Mamlouks. Some hundreds of these are dispersed throughout the country, and in the villages, to maintain the authority of their corps, collect the tributes, and improve every opportunity of extortion; but the main body continually remains at Cairo. From the computation of well-informed persons, it appears, their number cannot exceed eight thousand

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* Since the landing of a French army in this country, and their march to the capital of Egypt, a great change, probably, has taken place, particularly with respect to their government; but as no authentic accounts have been received from thence, on this point, we can only mention the circumstance, and must await time, to learn the event of this singular expedition, which has excited the curiosity, and attracted the attention, of almost all Europe.

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five hundred men, reckoning beys and cachefs, common freed-men, and Mamlouks, who are still slaves. In this number there are a multitude of youth, under twenty and twenty-two years of age.

The most powerful house is that of Ibrahim Bey, who has about six hundred Mamlouks. Next to him is Morad, who has not above four hundred, but who, by his audacity and prodigality, forms a counterpoise to the insatiable avarice of his rival; the rest of the Beys, to the number of eighteen or twenty, have each of them from fifty to two hundred. Besides these, there is a great number of Mamlouks who may be called *individual*, who being sprung from houses which are extinct, attach themselves sometimes to one, and sometimes to another, as they find it their interest, and are always ready to enter into the service of the best bidder. We must reckon likewise some Serradies, a sort of domestics on horse-back, who carry the orders of the beys; but the whole together does not exceed ten thousand horse. No mention is here made of infantry, which is neither known nor esteemed in Turkey, especially in the Asiatic provinces. The prejudices of the ancient Persians, and of the Tartars, still prevail in those countries, where war, consisting only in flight and pursuit, the horsemen, who is best qualified for both these, is reputed the only soldier; and as, among barbarians, the warrior is alone the man of distinction; to walk on foot is held to be degrading, and is, for that reason, reserved for the common people. The Mamlouks, therefore, permit the inhabitants of Egypt to be carried only by mules or asses,* reserving to themselves the exclusive privilege of riding on horseback; and of this they make sufficient use; for whether they are in town or country, or if they only make a visit to the next door, they are never seen but on horseback. Their dress, as well as the support of their dignity, obliges them to this.

Such are the men who at present govern and decide the fate of Egypt; a few lucky strokes of the sabre, a greater portion of cunning or audacity have conferred on them this pre-eminence; but it is not to be imagined that in changing fortune these upstarts change their character; they have still the meanness of slaves, though advanced to the rank of monarchs. Sovereignty with them is not the difficult art of directing to one common object the various passions of a numerous society, but only the means of possessing more women, more toys, horses and slaves, and satisfying all their caprices. The whole administration, internal and external, is conducted on this principle. It consists in managing the court of Constantinople, so as to elude the tribute, or menaces of the Sultan; and in purchasing a number of slaves, multiplying partisans,

* The Franks by all nations are subjected to the same humiliating restriction, but by proper management, and liberal presents, this may be got over by strangers of consequence, who come only to visit the country. Lord Algernon Percy, now Lord Lovvaine, and the Earl of Charlemont, obtained permission to ride on horseback in 1776.—See Colonel Capper's excellent little work, p. 31. T.

countermining plots, and destroying their secret enemies by the dagger, or by poison. Ever tortured by the anxiety of suspicion, the chiefs live like the ancient tyrants of Syracuse. Morad and Ibrahim sleep continually in the midst of carbines and sabres, nor have they any idea of police or public order*. Their only employment is to procure money : and the method considered as the most simple, is to seize it wherever it is to be found, to wrest it by violence from its possessor, and to impose arbitrary contributions every moment on the villages, and on the custom-house, which in its turn levies them again upon commerce.

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Chapter VII.

Of the Isthmus of Suez, and the junction of the Red Sea with the Mediterranean—From the same.

THE question has frequently been agitated in Europe, says Volney, whether it would be practicable to cut through the Isthmus which separates the Red Sea from the Mediterranean, that vessels might arrive at India by a shorter route than by the Cape of Good Hope. The narrowness of the Isthmus induces us to believe it easily practicable : but, in a journey I made to Suez, the following reasons induced me to change my opinion.

First, It is certainly true, that the space which separates the two seas is not more than eighteen or nineteen ordinary leagues; it is true, also, that this interval is not intersected by mountains, and that from the tops of the terraces at Suez, we cannot discover, with any telescopes, a single obstacle on the naked and barren plain to the north-west; it is not therefore the difference of levels which prevents the junction†; but the great difficulty arises from the nature of the corresponding coasts of the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, which are of a low and sandy soil, where the waters form lakes, shoals, and morasses, so that vessels can

* When I was at Cairo, some Mamlouks carried off the wife of a Jew, who was passing the Nile with her husband. The Jew having complained to Morad, that Bey replied in his rough tone of voice : *Well, let the young folks amuse themselves!* In the evening the Mamlouks acquainted the Jew that they would restore him his wife if he would pay them one hundred piasters for their trouble, and to this he was obliged to submit. This instance is the more in point, since in this country women are held more sacred than life itself.

† The ancients were of opinion that the Red Sea was higher than the Mediterranean ; and, in fact, if we observe that, from the canal of Kolzoum to the sea, the Nile has a declivity, for the space of thirty leagues, this idea will not appear so ridiculous ; besides that, to me it appears probable the level will be found at the Cape of Good Hope.

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not approach within a considerable distance. It will therefore be scarcely possible to dig a permanent canal amid these shifting sands: not to mention that the shore is destitute of harbours, which must be entirely the work of art. The country besides has not a drop of fresh water, and to supply the inhabitants, it must be brought as far as from the Nile.

The best and only method, therefore, of effecting this junction, is that which has been already successfully practised at different times; which is by making the river itself the medium of communication, for which the ground is perfectly well calculated; for Mount Mokattam suddenly terminating in the latitude of Cairo, forms only a low and semicircular mound, round which is a continued plain from the banks of the Nile as far as the point of the Red Sea. The ancients, who early understood the advantage to be derived from this situation, adopted the idea of joining the two seas by a canal connected with the river. Strabo (lib. 17.) observes, that this first was executed under Sesostris, who reigned about the time of the Trojan war*; and this work was so considerable as to occasion it to be remarked; "that it was a hundred cubits (or a hundred and seventy feet) wide, and deep enough for large vessels." After the Greeks conquered the country, it was restored by the Ptolemies, and again renewed by Trajan. In short, even the Arabs themselves followed these examples. "In the time of Osman ebn-el-Cattab," says the historian El Makin, "the cities of Mecca and Medina suffering from famine, the caliph ordered Amrou, governor of Egypt, to cut a canal from the Nile to Kolzoum, that the contributions of corn and barley, appointed for Arabia, might be conveyed that way."

This canal is the same which runs at present to Cairo, and loses itself in the country to the north-east of *Berket-el-Hadj*, or the Lake of the Pilgrims. Kolzoum, the Clyisma of the Greeks, where it terminated, has been destroyed for many ages; but the name and situation still subsists in a hillock of sand, bricks, and stones, three hundred paces to the North of Suez, on the border of the sea, opposite the ford which leads to the spring of El-Naba. I have been on the spot as well as M. Niebuhr, and the Arabs told me, as they did him, it was called Kolzoum; Danville, therefore, is deceived, when, copying an error of Ptolemy's, he places Clyisma eight leagues to the southward. I am of opinion that he is likewise mistaken, in supposing Suez the Arisinoe of the ancients.— This city having been situated, according to the Greeks and Arabs, to the north of Clyisma, we shall endeavour to trace it according to the words of Strabo, "quite at the bottom of the gulph, as we approach Egypt," without proceeding, however, with M. Savary as far as Adjeroud, which is too far to the westward. We ought to confine our-

* That is according to certain calculations of mine, in the time of Solomon. See *Mémoire sur le chronologie Ancienne*, inserted in the *Journal des Savans*, of January 1782.

† Strabo, lib. 17.

selves to the low country, which extends about two leagues from the bottom of the present gulph, that space being all we can reasonably allow for the retreat of the sea in seventeen centuries.

Formerly these districts were covered with towns which have disappeared with the waters of the Nile ; the canals which conveyed these were destroyed, for in this shifting soil they are rapidly choaked up, both by the action of the winds, and by the cavalry of the Bedouin Arabs. At present the commerce of Cairo with Suez is only carried on by means of caravans, which wait the arrival, and set out on the departure of the vessels, that is, towards the end of April, or the beginning of May, and in the course of the months of July and August. That which I accompanied in 1783, consisted of about three thousand camels, and five or six thousand men*. The merchandize consisted in wood, sails, and cordage for the ships at Suez ; in some anchors, carried each of them by four camels, iron bars, carded wool, and lead ; it likewise carried bales of cloth, and barrels of cochineal, corn, barley, beans, Turkish piastres, Venetian sequins, and Imperial dahlers. All these commodities were destined for Djedda, Mecca, and Moka, where they were to be bartered for Indian goods, and the coffee of Arabia, which forms the principal article of the returns. There was besides a great number of pilgrims, who preferred the voyage by sea to a land journey ; and it also carried the necessary provisions, such as rice, meat, wood, and even water ; for no place in the world is more destitute of every necessary than Suez. From the tops of the terraces, the eye, surveying the sandy plain to the north-west, the white rocks of Arabia to the east, or the sea, and the mountain Mokattam, to the south, cannot discern even a single tree, or the smallest spot of verdure. Suez presents no prospect but extensive yellow sands, or a lake of green water ; the ruinous condition of the houses heightens this melancholy scenery. The only water which can be drank is brought from El-Naba, or the spring, situated at the distance of three hours journey, on the Arabian shore ; but it is so brackish, that without a mixture of rum, it is insupportable to Europeans. The sea might furnish a quantity of shell and other fish ; but the Arabs seldom attempt fishing, at which they are far from expert ; when the vessels are gone, therefore, nobody remains at Suez, but the governor, who is a Mamlouk, and twelve or fourteen persons, who form his household and the garrison.

The fortress is a defenceless heap of ruins, which the Arabs consider as a citadel, because it contains six brass four pounders, and two Greek gunners, who turn their heads aside when they fire. The harbour is a

* It remained upwards of forty days assembled, deferring its departure for various reasons ; among others, on account of the *unlucky* days, in which respect the Turks are as superstitious as the Romans formerly were. At length it set out on the 27th of July, and arrived the 29th at Suez, having journeyed twenty-nine hours by the route of the Haoustat Arabs, a league farther to the south than the Lake of the Pilgrims.

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wretched quay, where the smallest boats are unable to reach the shore, except at the highest tides. There, however, the merchandize is embarked, to convey it over the banks of sand to the vessels which anchor in the road. This road, situated a league from the town, is separated from it by a shore which is left dry at low water; it has no works for its defence, so that the vessels which I have seen there, to the number of eight-and-twenty at a time, might be attacked without opposition: for the ships themselves are incapable of resistance, none having any other artillery than four rusty swivels. Their number diminishes every year, since, by continually coasting along a shore full of shoals, one out of nine, at least, is shipwrecked. In 1783, one of them having anchored at El-Tor, to take in water, was surprised by the Arabs, while the crew were sleeping on shore. After plundering it of fifteen hundred bags of coffee, they abandoned the vessel to the wind, which threw it upon the coast. The dock at Suez is ill adapted to repair such damages; scarcely do they build a *cayasse* in three years. Besides that, the sea, which from its flux and reflux accumulates the sand upon that coast, will at last choke up the entrance, and the same change will take place at Suez, which has already at Kolzoum and Arsinoe.

Were Egypt under the administration of a wise government, advantage might be then taken of that accident to build another town in the same road, which might be done on a causeway of only seven or eight feet in height, as the tide usually rises no more than three feet and a half. The canal of the Nile would be cleansed and repaired, and the five hundred thousand livres (near twenty-one thousand pounds), paid annually to the escort of the Arabs of Haouatat and Ayaidi, entirely saved. In short, to avoid the very dangerous bar of the Bogaz of Rosetta, the canal of Alexandria would be rendered navigable, from whence the merchandize might be conveyed immediately to the Porte. But such are not the cares of the present government. The small degree of encouragement it grants to commerce is not even founded on rational motives; if it be tolerated, it is merely because it furnishes a means of gratifying rapacity, and is a source from whence tyranny perpetually derives profit, without considering how soon it may be exhausted. It does not even know how to make advantage of the eagerness of the Europeans to communicate with India. In vain have the English and French attempted to concert with the Turks a plan for opening such a passage; they either inflexibly refuse, or discourage every application. We should be wrong in flattering ourselves with any durable success; for even were treaties concluded, the revolutions which, between evening and morning, so often alter the face of affairs, at Cairo, would render them of no effect, as was the treaty concluded in 1775, between Mohammad Bey and the governor of Bengal. Such besides is the avarice and treachery of the Mamlouks, that they would never want pretexts to harass the merchants, and would augment, in spite of every engagement, the duties on commodities.

Those on coffee are at this moment enormous. The *farde*, or bale of this commodity, weighing from three hundred and seventy, to three hundred and seventy five pounds, and costing at Moka, forty-five pataques*, or two hundred and thirty-six livres Tournois (nine pounds sixteen and eight pence) pays in *babr*, or sea duties, one hundred and forty-seven livres (six pounds two shillings and six pence) besides an addition of sixty-nine livres (two pounds seventeen shillings and six pence) laid on in 1783†. So that on adding the six per cent, collected at Djedda, we shall find that the duties nearly equal the prime cost‡.

* This is the name given by the inhabitants of Province to the dhaler of the empire, after the Arabs, who call it, *Rial about akar*, or *Father of the window*, on account of the arms on the reverse, which, according to them, resemble a window. The dhaler is worth five livres, five sols (four and four pence half penny.)

† In May 1783, the fleet of Djedda, consisting of twenty-eight sail, four of which were vessels pierced for sixty guns, brought near thirty thousand fardes of coffee, which at the rate of 370 pounds the farde, form a total of eleven millions one hundred thousand pounds weight, or one hundred and one thousand quintals; but it must be observed, that the demand of that year was more than a third greater than usual. Accordingly, we must reckon, on an average, from sixty to seventy thousand quintals annually. The farde paying two hundred and sixteen livres (nine pounds), duty at Suez, the thirty thousand fardes of 1783, produced to the custom house six millions four hundred and eighty thousand livres Tournois (two hundred and seventy thousand pounds.)

‡ At Moka,	16 livres.
At Suez,	147
Extra duty,	69
	—
Total of duties,	232
Prime cost,	236
	—
Total,	468

adding to which the freight, losses, and waste, it is not astonishing that the Moka coffee should sell at five-and-forty, and fifty sols (one and ten pence and two and a penny), the pound in Egypt, and for three livres (half a crown) at Marseilles,

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Chapter VIII.

The Cities of Alexandria, Rosetta, and Damietta, with a particular Description of their Harbours.

IN describing the cities of Egypt, we shall begin with Alexandria, which was so called from Alexander the Great, who, after his return from consulting the oracle of Jupiter Ammon, built a city in the place where Racotis stood, three hundred years before the birth of Christ. This city is called by the Turks Scanderia, as among them Alexander is called Scander. It was once an opulent and elegant city, and is seated near the most westerly branch of the Nile, where the sea forms a most spacious haven, resembling a crescent, in 31° 31' N. latitude, and 30° 16' E. longitude from Greenwich.

Alexandria, says Mr. Gibbon, comprehended a circumference of fifteen miles; and was peopled by three hundred thousand free inhabitants, besides at least an equal number of slaves. The lucrative trade of Arabia and India flowed through this port, to the capital and provinces of the Roman empire. Idleness was unknown; some were employed in blowing of glass, others in weaving of linen, others again in manufacturing the papyrus: either sex, and every age, were engaged in the pursuit of industry; nor did even the blind or the lame want occupations suited to their condition.

The port of Alexandria was formed by the isle of Pharos, which extended across the mouth of the bay, and toward the W. end was joined to the continent by a causeway and two bridges, ninety paces in length. On a rock encompassed by the sea at the E. end of the island, was the ancient Pharos, or light-house, so famous in antiquity, that it was esteemed one of the seven wonders of the world; and on the place where it stood is a castle, called Pharillon, "Nothing can be more beautiful," says M. Norden, "than to view from hence, the mixture of antique and modern monuments in this city. On passing the smallest castle, called the Little Pharillon, you see a row of great towers, joined together by the ruins of a thick wall. A single obelisk is of a sufficient height to make itself remarked where the wall has fallen down. New Alexandria afterward makes a figure with its minarets, and at a distance rises Pompey's* column, a most majestic monument; the view is terminated by hills, towers and a large square building, now a powder magazine."

* It ought for the future to be called the Pillar of Severus, since M. Savary has proved that it belongs to that emperor. Travellers differ with respect to the dimensions of this column; but the calculation the most generally admitted at Alexandria, makes the height of the shaft, with the capital, 96 feet, and the circumference 28 feet, three inches.

The following account of the harbours of Alexandria may not be deemed improper in this place:—“ Alexandria has two ports, one on the E. S. E. side of the city, called the new port, now in general use, and the other, or old port, on the W. S. W. side; the city standing on an isthmus or neck of land between them. The entrance is guarded by a tower, or castle, on each side, little more than one third of the breadth of the harbour from each other; and the channel into it, which is very narrow, is nearly in the middle, and has six fathom water. The larboard side is very rocky, and a large projecting rock, called the Black Rock, is on the starboard, near which vessels pass into the harbour, which is nearly a circular basin. There is anchorage and sufficient depth of water just within the entrance, in a direct line with the city; for each side is lined with rocks more than half way up; athwart which, at that distance, a ledge of rocks runs from the middle towards the starboard side of the harbour: within this, and on the larboard, ships may also anchor in four, three, and, nearer the city, in two fathoms water. To avoid the rocks within the haven, some of which are under water, observe in the wall of the city four gaps, like doors, which must be brought on with the highest tower in the city, and this will clearly direct a ship. It is mostly foul ground, so that the cables must be well served, otherwise they will be cut. This tower is the noted Pharos, deservedly esteemed one of the seven wonders of the world. A point of land, which is sixteen leagues W. of Alexandria, will be the first land on this low coast, on a S. W. by S. course, a little westerly from Cape de Gatte, the most southerly land of Cyprus island: it is a little higher than the other land, and appears in two long hills, but not high; seven leagues E. of this, the depth of water is from twenty to seven fathoms, the last close to the shore. Two black hills appear upon the land four leagues W. from Alexandria, and near them a building, called the Tower of Arabia. On approaching Alexandria, attend particularly to the current of the Nile, which runs very hard, especially with some winds, and will, without proper precaution, set a ship to the eastward of the port; to know it, observe two high mountains, of which the easternmost is the largest, and like a country house, and the other like a stack of hay; the light-house will then be seen open. To know if a ship is to the E. or W. of it, observe that on the W. the land is even, has no trees, and reaches W. S. W. and W. by S. and has deep water close to the land; but on the E. there is good anchorage, and an even shore, and the land low, sandy, and full of trees, and only six or seven fathoms water near the shore. This continues all along till past Damietta, and the farther E. the smoother water. At Aboukir*, or Cape Bokier, four leagues N. E. by N. from the city, is the western limit of a bay, where the woody country terminates.”

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* Aboukir, or Cape Bokier, is N. E. by N. from Alexandria, about four leagues, the land being high and plain. On this cape stands

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The outer walls, round the old city, are beautifully built of hewn stone, strengthened by semi-circular towers, twenty feet in diameter, and about a hundred and thirty feet distant from each other. At each of them are steps to ascend up to the battlements, there being on the top of the walls a walk built on arches. The inner walls of the old city, which appear to be built in the middle ages, are much stronger and higher than the others, and are defended by large high towers.

The palace with the buildings belonging to it, took up a fourth part of the city, and within was the museum, or academy, and a burial-place of the kings, where the body of Alexander was deposited in a gold coffin; but that being taken away, it was put into one of glass, and was probably in that condition when Augustus, taking a view of the corpse, scattered flowers over it, and adorned it with a golden crown.

The street, which extended the whole length of the city, is said to have been a hundred feet wide, and had undoubtedly many magnificent buildings, as appears from the granite columns still remaining in several places. Among these was the Gymnasium or public school, to which were porticos that extended above half a quarter of a mile. In this magnificent street was also probably the Forum, or court of justice, which was, perhaps, erected where some pillars remain, nearer the sea.

The most extraordinary remains of the ancient city are the cisterns built under the houses for receiving the water of the Nile, which they do at present.

The materials of the old city have been carried away to build the new, so that there are only a few houses, some mosques, and three convents, within the old walls. Among these is a mosque, called "The mosque of a thousand and one pillars." Dr. Pococke observed, that it has four rows of pillars to the S. and W. and one row on the other sides. This, it is said, was a church dedicated to St. Mark, at which the patriarch resided, it being near the gate without which the evangelist is said to have suffered martyrdom. There is another great mosque, named St. Athanasius, which was also doubtless a Christian church. The Greeks, Latins, and Coptics, have each a monastery in the old city:

a castle, which appears like the sail of a ship when you first see it, but it soon discovers itself; it is also four leagues S. from Rosetta, with an island between them, before the bay of Madia, within which you may anchor in six or seven fathoms water. The road formed by the cape and part of the island is called the road of Aboukir. It was in this road that the British fleet, under Admiral Nelson, defeated the French fleet, under Admiral d'Brueys, on the 1st of August, 1798. Towards Cape Bokier, from the island, are several very dangerous rocks and shoals, which none but those who are well acquainted with them can sail through, and that only with small ships, as the ground is very foul. Some of these rocks are above and some under the water; but the passage is so good on the N. side of the island, that there is no need of running any hazard.

but some poor Arabs being always encamped within the walls, it is dangerous being abroad after sun-set. All over the city are fragments of columns of beautiful marble, the remains of its ancient grandeur and magnificence. Among the rest, an obelisk, formed of one single piece of granite, rises sixty three feet high; but two of its four faces are so disfigured by time, that the hieroglyphics with which they were anciently covered can scarcely be seen. It is still called "The Obelisk of Cleopatra." Another lies near it broken.

About a quarter of a mile to the S. of the walls stands Pompey's Pillar, on a small eminence. As this is not mentioned by Strabo, it was probably erected after his time, and perhaps in honour of Titus or Adrian. Near it are some fragments of granite columns, four feet in diameter; and it appears that some magnificent building was erected there, and that this noble pillar was placed in the area before it. Indeed some Arabian historians say, that here was the palace of Julius Cæsar. This pillar is of granite, and, beside the foundation, consists of only three stones: the capital is supposed to be eight or nine feet deep, and is of the Corinthian order, the leaf appearing to be the plain laurel or bay leaf; and a hole being on the top; it has been thought that a statue was erected upon it: the shaft, including the upper torus of the base, is of one piece of granite marble, eighty-eight feet nine inches high, and nine feet in diameter: the pedestal, with part of the base, which are of a greyish stone resembling flint, are twelve feet and a half high, and the foundation, which consists of two tier of stones, is four feet nine inches; so that the whole height amounts to an hundred and fourteen feet.

These ruins are situated in a wide bay, in which is a little island joined to the continent by a chain of rocks; and on the shore of this bay are cavities in the rocks, used as agreeable retreats, where people may enjoy the cool air, and, without being seen, see every thing that passes in the port. The natural grottos in these rocks gave the ancients the opportunity of forming them, by the assistance of the chisel, into places of pleasure. Entire apartments are thus formed, and beaches are cut for seats, where you may be secured from the wet, or bathe in a part of the grottos into which the sea flows. Opposite the point of the peninsula that forms the port, is a cavern, generally termed a temple. The only entrance is a little opening, through which you pass lighted by flambeaus, and proceeding stooping for twenty paces, you enter a pretty large square hall. A passage leads from hence into a round cavern, the top of which is cut in the form of an arch. Here four gates are opposite to each other, they are adorned with an architrave, a cornice, and a pediment, with a crescent on the top. One of these gates serves for an entrance; the others form each a niche, that only contains a kind of chest, hewed out of the rock in hollowing it, and large enough to contain a dead body. Thus it appears, that what is in that country esteemed a temple, was probably the tomb of some great man, or perhaps of a sovereign prince.

With respect to New Alexandria, M. Norden observes, that "it may be justly said to be a poor orphan, who had no other inheritance but the venerable name of its father. The great extent of the ancient city is now contracted to a small neck of land which divides the two ports. The most superb temples are converted into plain mosques; the most magnificent palaces into houses of bad structure; an opulent and numerous people have given way to a few foreign traders, and to a multitude of wretches, who are the slaves of those on whom they depend. This city, once celebrated for its commerce, is no longer any thing more than a place of embarking: it is not a phoenix that revives from its own ashes; but a reptile sprung from the dust and corruption with which the Kotan hath infected the whole country: yet, notwithstanding the meanness of the buildings in general, in several houses, built round courts on porticos, they have placed a great variety of columns, mostly granite, with which the ancient city was adorned."

The cause of the decay of this city was the discovery of the passage to the East Indies by doubling the Cape of Good Hope: until then it was one of the principal marts for the spices and valuable commodities of the East.

The inhabitants consist of Jews, Turks, Coptics, Greeks, and Armenian Christians, together with a few European merchants, the principal of which are the French and English; the former are treated with most respect, and carry on a more extensive trade: The French maintain a consul dependent on the consul of Grand Cairo; the English have also a consul, and each year many English vessels arrive at Alexandria; but they are not always laden on account of the English; the Jews, and even the Turks often freight them, and carry on a considerable trade on board these vessels*.

Rosetta†, called by the Egyptians Rafschid, is situated twenty-five miles to the N. E. of Alexandria, in 31° 5' N. latitude, and in 31° 10' E. longitude from London, and stands on the W. side of the branch of the Nile, anciently called Bolbetinum, about four miles from its mouth. It is esteemed one of the pleasantest places in Egypt, and being refreshed by the winds that blow from the sea, is ex-

* The French army, under general Buonaparte, landed near this city in different divisions, on the 2d July, 1798, and took possession of it, after having several severe skirmishes with the Mamlouks and Arabs. The number of men lost by the French in this attempt, according to Buonaparte's official letter to the Executive Directory, does not exceed from thirty to forty men killed, and from eighty to an hundred wounded; but persons who are acquainted with the nature of military service, and who have read his letter, will probably judge that his loss must have been much greater. According to an official letter from Sir Horatio Nelson to Earl St. Vincent, the French army landed here amounted to 38,000 men; but the French say 40,000.

† The French took possession of this place on the 8th July, 1798.

tremely healthy. It is near two miles in length, but only consists of two or three long streets, and is not more than half a mile broad; however the buildings are stately, and the houses commodious. It is defended by two castles, one upon each side of the branch of the Nile, by which merchandize is brought hither from Cairo. The fine country of Delta*, (which, according to Strabo, lib. 17. received its name from the branches of the Nile making the figure of that Greek letter) on the other side of the Nile, and two beautiful islands a little below the town afford a delightful prospect; and to the N. the country is agreeably improved by pleasant gardens of citrons, oranges, lemons, and almost all kinds of fruit, and is variegated by groves of palm-trees, small lakes, and fields of rice.

The inhabitants, carry on a considerable manufacture of striped and coarse linen; but the principal business of the place is the carriage of goods between this town and Cairo.

"Rosetta," says Colonel Capper, "does not, I believe, abound with antiquities, but there are many modern buildings in and near the city, which are very well worth seeing. It is a place much respected by the Mahometans, who say, if Mecca was to be taken from them, that the pilgrims, who now go thither, would in future visit Raschid; an opinion probably founded on a tradition that one of Mahomed's nearest relations formerly lived there, and now lies buried at a mosque, which is situated at the northern part of the suburbs.

"In the environs of this city are many country houses belonging to Christian merchants, whose gardens abound with exceeding fine oranges, and many of the choicest fruits of the East; but what tends much

* "The Delta (says Savary), that immense garden, where the exhaustless earth is never weary of producing, afford an internal view of harvests, vegetables, flowers and fruits, in succession; the abundant variety of which, at once, gladdens the eyes and the heart. Various species of cucumbers, delicious melons, the fig, the orange, the banana, the pomegranate, all grow here, all have here an exquisite flavour. Yet how much might culture increase their excellence, did the Egyptians understand engrafting.

† On the gardens of the Rosetta, Savary observes, (Letters on Egypt vol. 1. p. 51, and 52.) "North of the city are gardens, where citron, orange, date, and sycamore-trees are promiscuously planted; though this disorder is negligent, the mingling of the trees, and the arbours they form, impenetrable to the sun's rays, together with the flowers scattered among them, render these groves most enchanting.

"When the atmosphere is all on fire, when the big moisture courses down every member, when gasping man pants after cool air, as the sick after health, with what extacy does he go and respire under these boughs, and beside the rivulet by which they are watered! There the Turk, with his long jasamine pipe wrought with amber, imagines himself transported into the garden of delight which Mahomet promised; thought-

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more to make it an agreeable residence to them, is the liberality and politeness of the Mahometan inhabitants, who, notwithstanding the reputed sanctity of the place, are particularly civil to the Christians; whereas at Damietta, which is situated only on the opposite or Pelusian side of the Delta, an European cannot appear without a certainty of being insulted. No other reason can be assigned for this violent antipathy, but that during the crusades considerable detachments of the Christian armies used to land there, and the accounts of the ravages which they committed being handed down by tradition to posterity, has fixed a deep-rooted resentment in the minds of the Damiettans, never to be eradicated."—*Colonel Capper's Travels*.

Rosetta harbour is situated near the mouth of the western channel of the Nile; it is about an hundred miles to the N. W. from Cairo, and twenty-five to the W. from Alexandria. There is a bar across the mouth of this opening of the Nile, which prevents ships of burden from getting up to the town, so that they are obliged to unload below, and send up their lading in boats. From Cape Brule, to the eastward, to this port is about nine or ten leagues at W. S. W. the land towards Rosetta falling away so very flat and low as to be almost even with the water. It is shoal off into the sea, for ships must come into ten fathoms before they can see the land; nor can it be seen even within three leagues of it, but the vessels will be discovered in the road before the land will appear, at so small a distance. Rosetta lies even to the sea, as does Damietta, at the mouth of the eastern channel of the Nile; and is situated on an outer point of land, and not immediately on the very banks of the Nile, though not far from it. There are four or five high towers or turrets in Rosetta, and a castle on that part of it next to the Nile, which runs with a great arm very nearly by it, and brings down black water into the sea. These are sufficient marks whereby to know the place. There is a good road before the city, but it is a bad place for ships in western winds, being worse than at Damietta. Madia Bay is to the S. of it where another branch of the Nile comes in, to which ships run in behind an island, when they find the road of Rosetta uncomfortable. Cape Becur, or Bokier, is four leagues to the S. of Rosetta.

Damietta is a flourishing commercial town, situated on the eastern mouth of the Nile; one hundred miles N. of Cairo; some geogra-

les, in tranquil apathy, he smokes the sun down, void of desire, void of ambition; his calm passions never cast one curious look towards futurity: that restless activity by which we are tormented, and which is the soul of all our knowledge, of all our work, is to him unknown; content with what he possesses, he neither invents nor brings the inventions of others to perfection: his life, to us, seems a long slumber; ours, to him, one continued state of intoxication; but, while we are ever pursuing happiness which ever eludes our grasp, he peacefully enjoys the good that nature gives, and each day brings, without troubling himself concerning the morrow.

phers have supposed it to be the ancient Pelusium. It is larger than Rosetta. M. Savary supposes it to contain 80,000 inhabitants. A very considerable trade is carried on in this city with Syria, Cyprus, and Marseilles ; yet the harbour is much exposed to winds.

The neck of land on which this town stands is only from two to six miles wide, from E. to W. It is intersected by innumerable rivulets in every direction, which render it the most fertile spot in Egypt; the soil producing, on an average, eight bushels of rice for one. Destructive heats as well as chilling colds are equally unknown in this happy spot. The thermometer varies only from 9deg. to 24deg. above the freezing point ; at Grand Cairo it rises 12deg. higher.

There are many villages round Damietta, in most of which manufactures of the finest Egyptian cloth are established. Here, particularly, napkins are made, at the ends of which are silk fringe : these are brought to table, especially on visits of ceremony ; a slave presenting one on a silver plate, for the purpose of wiping the mouth after eating confectionary, or drinking sherbet.

Damietta and its harbour is situated on the eastern shore of the E. branch of the Nile, at the distance of near two leagues from the sea, in latitude 31deg. 15min. N. and in longitude 30deg. 15min. E. from London ; it has two high towers or castles that may be seen far off at sea, and that serve to know it by. It lies open to the sea, and the swelling of the river Nile causes very high water there. Before it there is good anchorage at a great distance off, and to the E. and W. the ground is hard ; but the mud that is brought down by the waters of the Nile into the sea causes it to be somewhat soft just at the town. From hence to Cape Brull it is eleven miles to W. N. W. northerly, the coast between being very low land, with abundance of trees ; but it is good sandy ground off at sea, especially when the freshes of the Nile are not great. This coast appears at first like several islands out at sea, which, on approaching nearer, are found to be patches and clusters of trees. There are two hills to the W. of Damietta, which appear like two red stony cliffs, and serve as guides to this port ; and there are also two great mountains about midway, or rather better, towards Cape Brull, which further assist in determining the part of the coast where they are situated. All along the coast, and a great way out to sea, it is even ground and shoal water, and ships may anchor any where near the shore in six or seven fathoms.

The jealousy of the Mahometans is particularly shewn to travellers who are examining remains of antiquity in their country, which Colonel Capper accounts for in the following manner : " It is their general belief," says he, " that all Europeans are deeply versed in the abstruse and occult sciences ; hence they consider them in the same light as the vulgar and ignorant in Europe consider fortune-tellers or conjurers, that is, with a kind of admiration, mixed with fear and detestation. Added to this prejudice, the natives are also thoroughly persuaded, from the stories they daily hear repeated out of the Arabian Nights Entertainments,

that they are many subterraneous palaces in their country full of pearls and diamonds, in search of which they suppose the Europeans visit Egypt. In this opinion they are confirmed, by the travellers acknowledging that they are looking after curiosities; and the natives not having the most distant idea of what is meant by curiosities, naturally conclude that those so employed are looking for pearls and diamonds which opinion is strongly corroborated by the zeal and anxiety shewn by our antiquaries, in their researches."

Chapter IX.

A Description of Grand Cairo. Of the Ceremonies observed at opening the Canal; the Egyptian manner of baking Chicken in Ovens; the Inhabitants and their Trade.

THE city of Grand Cairo, called by the Turks "Elkahe-ra," or, "the victorious," is situated about a mile from the eastern bank of the river Nile, and extends eastward near two miles to the neighbouring mountain. It stands in Middle Egypt, in 30deg. 3min. N. latitude, and in 31deg. 18min. E. longitude from Greenwich. It is about seven miles in compass, and was much larger before the discovery of the East Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, it being then the centre of trade, all the spices of the East being brought to this city, and from thence sent to Europe. Grand Cairo at present consists of Old and New Cairo, which are a mile distant from each other.

Old Cairo is now reduced to a small compass, it not being more than two miles round: this is the port for the boats that come from Upper Egypt. The Jews have a synagogue, said to have been built in its present form sixteen hundred years ago, and it nearly resembles our churches. They pretend that Jeremiah the prophet was on the very spot where they usually read the law; and that they have a manuscript copy of the Bible written by Ezra, which they esteem so sacred, that none are allowed to touch it, and it is kept in a niche in the wall about ten feet high, before which a curtain is drawn, and lamps kept continually burning.

In Old Cairo, called by the Turks, Fostat, are what are usually called Joseph's Granaries; these are square courts encompassed by walls about fifteen feet high, built chiefly with brick, and strengthened by semicircular buttresses. The houses are filled with corn, and room only left to enter at the door. The grain is covered with mats, and the door fastened only with wooden locks; but the inspectors of the granaries putting a handful of clay on the locks, fix their seal to it. Here is deposited the corn paid as a tax to the grand seignior, which is brought

from upper Egypt, and distributed among the soldiers as a part of their pay. This granary, notwithstanding its name, is not very ancient, for it seems to have been built during the time of the Saracens.

Here is an aqueduct, into which the waters of the Nile are conveyed; it is supported by about two hundred and eighty-nine arches and piers of different dimensions, the former being only from ten to fifteen feet wide. These arches are low toward the castle-hill where the water runs into a reservoir, whence it is raised up to the castle by several wheels one above another.

Opposite to Old Cairo is a pleasant island named Roida, situated in the midst of the Nile, and extending near a mile in length. Toward the N. end is a village of the same name, and at the S. end is the Mikias, or house in which is the famous pillar for measuring the rise of the Nile, called "The Nilometer." This is fixed in a deep basin, the bottom of which is on a level with the bed of the river, and the water passes through it. The pillar, which is placed under a dome supported by Corinthian columns, is divided into measures for observing the rise of the waters, and is crowned with a Corinthian capital, and from the court that leads to the house is a descent to the Nile by steps, on which the common people believe that Moses was found when exposed on the bank of the river.

Here are several squares or places about the city, from a quarter to three quarters of a mile in compass, contrived so as to receive and retain the waters of the Nile, conveyed to them by a canal, which runs through the city of New Cairo, as the river rises, than which nothing can be imagined more beautiful; for they are surrounded by the best houses in the city, and in the summer, when the Nile is high, are covered with fine boats and barges belonging to persons of distinction, who spend the evenings with their ladies on the water, where concerts of music are never wanting, and sometimes fire-works are added. All the houses round are in a manner illuminated, and the windows filled with spectators. This pleasing scene is, however, entirely vanished when the waters are gone off, and nothing but mud appears. Yet this is soon succeeded by the agreeable view of green corn, and afterward of harvest, in the midst of a great city, and in the very places where the boats were sailing but a few months before.

Some of the most remarkable customs observed at Cairo, are the ceremonies practised at opening the canal. When the Nile begins to rise they cast up a bank of earth across the end of the canal near the river, and about the middle of August, when the water has risen to a proper height it is broke down with great rejoicings. Thevenot, who gives the most particular account of these ceremonies, went to Boulac, the port of all the boats that come up the river to see the preparations; when he observed several gallies lying in the river, in the sterns of which were noble rooms, some of which were twelve or fourteen paces square, and surrounded with rails and balusters gilt and painted, and the floors covered with rich carpets and cushions. About seven in the morn-

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ing the basha arrived in great state; as he passed a sheep was killed in several places, and three or four more on the bank of the river. All the beys and great men of Cairo accompanied the basha in his galley, and having sailed as high as Old Cairo, he was saluted by the guns of the other vessels, which followed in order. The sails of the basha's galley were of several colours, and worked with large red roses; the trumpets and other music played as they passed, while the guns fired, and the people shouted, to express their great joy. In this manner they moved gently along, till they came to the place where the bank was to be opened to let the water into the canal. Here the mob were waiting in crowds, and there being two pasteboard towers filled with fireworks, these were let off as the basha passed; in the mean time the people broke down the bank to give the water a passage into the canal, and boat-loads of sweetmeats were thrown into the river, for which they jumped in and scrambled. The viceroy moved forward to his palace in the island of Roida, opposite to Cairo; and bonfires, illuminations and fireworks were continued for three nights successively. There were particularly two vast machines, representing a man and woman of gigantic stature, placed on the river before the basha's palace, which took up no less than two thousand lamps to illuminate them; beside, all the gallies, barges, and other vessels were hung full of lamps, and in them the music played; and fireworks were continually let off, with the discharge of great and small guns.

But the ceremonies are more usually performed by land, when the basha, attended by his guards, proceeds on horseback along the canal, and coming to the end of it, dismounts, strikes the bank, takes horse, and riding back, leaves several persons to break it down, while great crowds follow him, singing and striking each other with cudgels. The water at length flows in, accompanied by a number of men and boys swimming. Fire-works are played off, and all the while the canal is filling, it is covered with boats filled with young men, singing and playing on musical instruments, to express their joy for the fertility produced by this river.

Mr. Volney mentions certain kinds of exhibitions, which are common in Cairo, and in no other parts of the Turkish dominions: they are made by strollers who shew feats of strength like our rope-dancers, and tricks of dexterity of hand like our jugglers. Some of them may be seen eating flints; others breathing flames; some cutting their arms, or perforating their noses, without receiving any hurt; and others devouring serpents. The people (from whom they carefully conceal the secrets of their art) entertain a sort of veneration for them, and call these extraordinary performances, which appear to have been very ancient in this country, by a name which signifies prodigy, or miracle.

The streets of this city are very narrow; and most of them are shut up as soon as it grows dark, with gates which are guarded by Janizaries. Several streets consist only of shops, without any houses, and are also locked up at night, when the tradesmen return home; and the shops of the same trade are generally together.

This city contains several magnificent mosques, particularly one on the N. E. called Cubbeel-Azab, about sixty feet square, which has a very beautiful dome. It is cased round with all the most beautiful kinds of marble, and some fine slabs of red and green porphyry. The walls above have Arabic inscriptions in letters of gold, and the whole cupola is painted and gilt in the most splendid manner. All over the mosque are hung glass lamps and ostriches' eggs. Adjoining to this edifice are apartments built for the priests, and some very fine ones for such persons of rank as choose to reside there.

Mr. Savary asserts, that Grand Cairo contains, within its walls, upward of three hundred mosques, most of which have very high steeples of a light architecture, and are surrounded with galleries; they are called minarets. These buildings give an agreeable variety to the city, otherwise too uniform, from the universal flatness of the roofs, which are all in the form of terraces. It is from these minarets that the public criers call the people to prayers at the hours prescribed by the law, that is, at sun-rise, at noon, at three o'clock, at sun-set, and about two hours after. At these times about eight hundred voices are to be heard, at the same instant, from every quarter of the town, reminding the people of their duty toward the deity; the sound of bells being odious to the Turks. The criers on these occasions vociferate the following formula: "God is great, I declare that there is only one God. I aver that Mahomet is his prophet. Come to prayer: come to adoration. God is great, He is the only one."

In the quarter of the Janizaries are the ruins of the palace of Salah Eddin or Saladin, who was also called Joseph, son of Aioub; his other names are so many high titles given him by the Mahometans, on account of his victories over the christian princes, whom he expelled Syria. Here is the divan of that conqueror, the dome of which, and part of the walls, are fallen. There are still standing thirty columns of red granite, the shafts of which, consisting of single stones, are more than forty-five feet high. The difference of their size, and of the sculptured ornaments around their capitals, announce that they have been brought from ancient monuments. On the summit of this building is a saloon, from which the view extends over an immense horizon. From it the city appears in the form of a vast crescent around the castle, and toward the port a rich country covered with harvests, and interspersed with groves of date-trees, presents itself. Old Cairo appears to the S. W. and the plains of the Said or Upper Egypt, which, when they are overflowed by the Nile, offer to the view here and there different hamlets, built on eminences, at that time converted into Islands. This landscape is terminated by the Pyramids, which, like the tops of mountains, lose themselves in the clouds. Mr. Savary speaks of this prospect in the following manner: "One is never tired with running one's eyes over so many variegated and noble objects. I have, more than once, enjoyed this delightful spectacle. The fresh air one breathes in this lofty situation, the coolness one enjoys there, add a new charm to the pleasures of the sight. Seated on this delightful Belvidere, the mind gives itself up

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to agreeable meditations, which are soon interrupted by those of a gloomy nature, on reflecting, that these rich countries, where the arts and sciences formerly flourished, are now possessed by an ignorant and barbarous people, who trample them under foot. Despotism crushes with his iron sceptre the most beautiful portion of the globe ; it seems as if the misery of the human race increased in proportion to the efforts which nature has made to render them happy.

The castle of Cairo is said to have been built by Saladin, or as Mr. Savary styles him, Salah Eddin ; father Sicard asserts, but erroneously, that it was built by queen Semiramis. It is seated on a rocky mountain called Mokattam, and is walled round ; but, though it is of very difficult access, it is so commanded by a hill to the east, as to be of no strength since the invention of cannon. At the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Mosaic work : but these apartments are now only used for weaving, embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca.

The interior of the castle contains the palace of the sultans of Egypt, almost buried under its ruins : domes overthrown, heaps of rubbish ; gilding and painting, whose colours have defied the injuries of time ; superb columns of marble still standing, but almost all without capitals ; these are all that remain of their ancient magnificence.

In the west part of the castle is the jail, which the common people think to be the prison in which Joseph was confined ; but this is a vulgar error.

There is a well in the castle much admired on account of its great depth : it is cut through the rock, and the water brought up by several Persian wheels, placed one over another, and turned by oxen. This is called Joseph's well, not from the patriarch of that name, but from a grand vizier, who, about seven hundred years ago, had the care of the work under sultan Mahomet. It is 280 feet deep, by 42 in circumference. It consists of two different excavations, which are not perpendicular one to the other. A stair-case, whose descent is very gentle, winds round it. The partition which separates it from the well, is formed out of the rock, and is only six inches thick. Some windows, made in it at stated intervals, light this flight of stairs ; but as they are small, and the light comes from a great distance, it is necessary to be provided with candles in descending. At the bottom of the first perpendicular is a platform and a basin. Here the oxen turn the wheel which raises the water from the bottom of the lower well ; other oxen placed above, raise it from this reservoir by the same mechanism. This water comes from the Nile, and as it filters through a sand impregnated with salt and nitre, it is brackish. Savary says, that at a little village near Heliopolis, named Mataree, which in Arabic signifies, Fountain of the Sun, is the only spring of fresh water in Egypt, from which circumstance it derives its name. In a part of the city called Cora Maidan stands the mint, where are coined gold, and small pieces of iron washed over with silver. These are called sequins and medins ; the former, which is of gold, is

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worth about six shillings and three pence, the latter are of the value of three farthings. These pieces of coin are struck with the dye of Cheik Elbeled, which title is held by the most powerful of the beys of Grand Cairo, who is governor of the country, and possesses the right of coining money. According to Mr. Savary, Salah Eddin, who was the patron of literature, built an university in the quarter of the city called Careffe, (about the middle of the twelfth century) but it is now in ruins. The Arts and sciences flourished there until the Turks possessed themselves of Egypt: that epocha was their tomb; enemies to every branch of human knowledge, they have extinguished them throughout the whole extent of their vast empire.

Abulfeda, in his description of Egypt, represents the situation of Grand Cairo as less advantageous than that of Fostat, or Old Cairo; because it stands at some distance from the Nile, and is surrounded toward the east by a barren chain of mountains, called the Mokattam, which being destitute of verdure, present nothing to the eye but a dry sand, and stones calcined in the sun. When a northerly wind does not blow, it reflects a suffocating heat upon the town.

Among the curiosities at Cairo we ought not to omit their manner of hatching chicken, by putting the eggs in ovens, which are heated with so temperate a warmth as to furnish an effectual succedaneum for the natural heat of the hen, and to produce living chicken. These ovens are under ground, and the bottomis covered with cotton or flax, to lay the eggs upon. There are twelve of these ovens together, that is, six on a side, in two stories, on each side the passage. They begin to heat them about the middle of February, with the hot ashes of the dung of camels or cows, which affords a smothering heat without any visible fire. This they lay at the mouth and farther end of the oven, daily changing it and putting in fresh dung for ten days, and then lay in the eggs, which sometimes amount to eight thousand in an oven. After eight or ten days they pick out the good from the bad, which they discover by holding them to a lamp, and then putting out the fire, lay one half of the eggs in the upper oven, and shutting them up close, let them lie about ten days longer; and then opening the ovens they find the chicken hatched. If it has happened to thunder, great numbers miscarry; and frequently they want a claw, a rump, or are some other way imperfect. It is said that the people of only one village, called Berme, are masters of the art of hatching chicken, by this artificial warmth imparted to eggs, and that at the proper time of the year, they travel with their poultry all over Egypt. The day after the chicken have broken a way out of their shell, they are carried about the town in baskets, and sold for a half-penny a-piece. Extraordinary as this method of hatching chicken may appear, it is practicable in other countries. The duke of Florence sent for some of the Coptis employed in thus producing chicken, who hatched them in Italy in the same manner; and, since that time, the late learned and ingenious M. Reaumur, after many experiments, found it practicable in France, and has shewn the manner of doing it in a work on that subject, which has been translated into English. In England the attempt

has been made with some success. "Several authors," says M. Savary, "have asserted, that these chicken never become such good poultry as those hatched under the hen. This is a mistake. A French cook I saw at Grand Cairo bought them every year, and by good feeding made them excellent pullets."

Half a league distant from Grand Cairo, toward the N. W. is the port called by the Turks Boulak; this place is two miles long, but narrow. It contains magnificent public baths, and spacious square buildings, enclosing a court which is surrounded by a portico, over which is a winding gallery. These buildings are called Okals. The ground floor consists of warehouses, the next floor contains apartments without furniture, and without ornament. These okals are inhabited by strangers, who there deposit their merchandize. These are the only inns to be met with in Egypt. The traveller is obliged to provide his own furniture, and dress his victuals there, for, in this country, a dinner is not to be had for money.

A canal, which the Turks call Khalig, encloses Grand Cairo, and is opened every year with great solemnity. This was a Roman work, executed under the direction of Trajan, or his successor Adrian, and was designed to open a communication with the Red Sea. It begins at a league and an half below Old Cairo, and passes near Heliopolis; but it having been long choked up, the object for which it was formed is no longer obtained. M. Savary says it might be easily cleared, and such a communication with the Red Sea being restored, Grand Cairo would again become a wealthy emporium.

Few arts in Egypt are carried to any perfection higher up the Nile; and this, with the convenience of water carriage, render Cairo a place of great trade, and bring a prodigious concourse of people to that city.

Most of the inhabitants of Cairo are descended from the Mamlouks; but there are also many Jews, some Greeks, and a few Armenians; but there are no other Europeans settled in the city but the English, French, and some Italians from Leghorn and Venice.

The European merchants, notwithstanding the restraints under which they live, pass their time agreeably among themselves. They were formerly described as living sociably with those of their own nation; and, as the country is uncommonly fruitful, they possessed whatever tended to make life pleasant. They spent the morning in business, and often passed the remainder of the day in the fields and gardens to the north of Cairo; and, great part of their affairs being transacted by the Jews, they had a relaxation from business both on the Jewish and Christian sabbaths. When the Nile overflowed its banks, and they had little business to do, they retired to their houses at Old Cairo and Gize, which last is situated on the opposite bank of the river. Some authors have erroneously supposed the ancient Memphis to have stood here, but it was no more than the suburb of Old Cairo, from which it took its name, Gize, in Arabic, signifying an extremity.

The trade of Cairo chiefly consists in the importation of broad cloth, lead and tin; and the exportation of flax, senna, coffee, and several drugs, chiefly brought by the Red Sea from Persia. The natives likewise import raw silk from Asia, which they manufacture into satins and other silks, in imitation of those of India. Sugar of the growth of this country, is also made here; but it is neither cheap nor fine; furniture for horses, and lattices for windows, of turned wood, brass, and iron, are made in great perfection; and they also export fine matting, made of dried rushes, which is not only sent over the Turkish empire, but to most parts of Europe.

M. Volney, a very judicious French traveller, relates, that the only resident merchants in Grand Cairo are natives of France; he calls it the most precarious and disagreeable factory in the Levant, and declining very fast: a few years ago there were nine mercantile houses there, in 1785 they were reduced to three. France used to maintain a consul, but in the year 1777 he was withdrawn on account of the expence, and transferred to Alexandria. The situation of the merchants since that time has been highly perilous, in respect both to their lives and fortunes, being nearly similar to that of the Dutch at Nangazaki in Japan; that is to say, shut up in a confined place, where they live among themselves, and go as little out as possible, to avoid the insults of the common people, who hate the very name of Franks; and such is the insolence of the Mamlouks, that they force them to dismount from their asses in the middle of the streets; at the same time they are exposed to the arbitrary exactions of the officers of the revenue. The same writer gives the population of Grand Cairo*, upon the authority of the officer of the customs, at near 700,000 souls.

* Niebuhr observes, that "Cairo, although a very great city, is not so populous as the cities in Europe of the same extent. The capital of Egypt contains large ponds, which, when full, have the appearance even of lakes. The mosques occupy large areas; in a quarter which I had occasion to examine particularly, I found the large streets divided by a large space of ground laid out in gardens and otherwise. I am induced to think, that, in the other quarters, are large unoccupied spaces of the same sort. The houses in Cairo are not so high as in the cities of Europe; in some parts they consist only of one story, and are built of bricks that have been dried in the sun."

The French army, under Buonaparte, took possession of this city on the 22d July, 1798, after having three different actions with the Mamlouks and Bedouin Arabs: according to the latest accounts from thence his head quarters was established at this place.

Chapter X.

The Pyramids of Memphis and Socotra.

ABOUT four leagues distance from Cairo are the Pyramids, which were formerly ranked among the seven wonders of the world, and cannot now be viewed without admiration. These are situated upon the solid rock at the foot of the high mountains that accompany the Nile in its course, and separate Egypt from Lybia. Their architecture, both on the inside and without, is extremely different with respect to distribution, materials, and grandeur. Some of these are open, others in ruins, and most of them are inclosed; but all have been injured by time. The immense quantity of materials used in constructing them, renders it impossible for all of them to have been built at the same time, and those that were last erected greatly exceed the first in magnificence and grandeur. They are the works, says Mr. Norden, of the remotest antiquity, and even more early than the times of the most ancient historians whose writings have been transmitted to us, the very epocha of their beginning being lost at the time when the first Greek philosophers travelled into Egypt. Herodotus, indeed, names the time when the largest was erected, and makes it the work of Cheops.

The principal pyramids being situated near the place where the ancient city of Memphis is supposed to have stood, they are commonly called the pyramids of Memphis*; Mr. Volney calls them the pyramids of Djira. They stand on a rocky plain, eighty feet perpendicular above the level of the ground overflowed by the Nile; and it appears that this

* Niebuhr says, "The traveller is astonished, and feels his imagination in some measure expanded, when he arrives at the foot of those prodigious masses. It is from this circumstance, I suppose, that the Pyramids are thought much higher on a first view than they actually are. My first care was to measure them: this I performed with all the exactness possible, amongst a crowd of jealous and troublesome Arabs, by whom I was surrounded, and found the largest and foremost pyramid to be 440 feet. I was surprized to find the result of my measurement so different from what other travellers had given out to be the height of this pyramid, and was for some time uneasy about communicating it to the public. Upon my return to Europe, I found in the *Description of the Plains of Heliopolis and Memphis*, by M. Fourmont, the following passage: "Lord Charlemont, who arrived in Egypt while I was there, told me, that he had measured the height of the foremost pyramid, and assured me, that it was only 444 feet." The agreement of this measurement with my own, rendered me less doubtful of the correctness of my operations."

rock, not being every where level, has been smoothed by the chisel. It is remarkable that it is almost covered by the flying sand brought by the wind from the adjacent mountains; and that in this sand are a great number of shells, and those of oysters petrified, which is the more surprising as the Nile, when overflowing, never rises so high, nor does that river produce any kind of shell-fish throughout its whole course. Here are also found the beautiful flint-stones, which, on account of the singularity of their colours, are thought much more valuable than agate, and of which the people of Cairo make snuff-boxes and handles for knives.

There are four of the pyramids that deserve the attention of the curious; beside these, there are seven or eight others; but these last are not to be compared with the former, especially as some are in a very ruinous condition. The four principal are nearly upon the same diagonal line, at about four hundred paces distance from each other; and their four faces exactly correspond to the four cardinal points. The two most northerly are the largest; and Mr. Greaves, who measured the bottom of the first, found that it was exactly six hundred and ninety-three English feet square, and that its perpendicular height is five hundred feet; but if it be taken as the pyramid ascends, inclining, then the height is equal to the breadth of the base. It is a circumstance pretty generally known, that the square of Lincoln's-inn-fields, in London, was laid out by *Indigo Jones*, according to the exact size of the base of this pyramid.

This pyramid is ascended on the outside by steps, which run round it; the number of them has, however, been very differently related. Greaves gives the lowest of any traveller, making them amount to two hundred and seven; Maillet, Pococke, Belon, Thevenot, and Albert Liewenstein, all assert, that they counted them, and only two agree in the number; the last makes them consist of two hundred and sixty. These steps are from two feet to four feet high. The external part is chiefly built of great square stones, cut from the rock which extends along the Nile, where to this day may be seen the caves whence they were taken. The size of the stones is unequal, but they have all the figure of a prism, that they may lie perfectly close. The architect has only observed the pyramidal figure, without troubling himself about the regularity of the steps; and it appears that the inequality of the stones, which vary four, five, and even ten inches, is the reason why so many travellers, who have counted them, always differ with respect to number. These kind of steps, says Mr. Norden, were not designed for ascending and descending, and therefore regularity was no farther sought than was necessary for the general shape of the pyramid and the facility of the work. It appears that the external lays are solely compacted by the weight of the stones, without mortar, lead, or cramps of any metal; but in the body of the pyramid they have used a mortar composed of lime, earth, and clay. At its four corners it is easily perceived that the lower stones are placed on the rock, without any other foundation; but beyond them, quite to the middle of each face, the wind has formed a slope of sand,

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which on the north side rises so high as to afford a commodious ascent to the entrance of the pyramid, which is about forty eight feet high.

On ascending to the entrance, you discharge a pistol to frighten away the bats, and then two Arabs, whom you are obliged to have for your attendants, enter and remove the sand, which almost stops up the passage. You then strip yourself to your shirt, on account of the excessive heat constantly felt in the pyramid, and in this condition enter the passage, each of the company having a wax candle in his hand; for the torches are not lighted till you are in the chambers, for fear of causing too much smoke. This passage runs downward ninety-two feet and a half, and is very steep; but at the farther end of it is an opening, so small, that it is barely a foot and a half high, and two feet in breadth; yet through this hole you are obliged to pass; but the traveller, instead of creeping, commonly lays himself down, and each of the two Arabs that went before take one of his legs, and thus drag him over the sand and dust.

On having passed this strait, which fortunately is no more than two ells long, you enter a pretty large place, where travellers commonly take some refreshment, to give them courage to proceed.

There are other such passages, all of which, except the fourth, are three feet and a half square, and lined on the four sides by great blocks of white marble, so polished, that this, with the acclivity of the way, would render them impassable, were it not for little holes cut for fixing the feet. It costs great trouble to advance forward, and if you make a false step, you will slide backward to the place whence you set out; but by observing these holes you proceed commodiously enough, though you must stoop till you come to the end of the second passage, which is a hundred and ten feet in length: you then come to a resting-place, at the right hand of which is an opening into a kind of well, in which nothing is to be found but bats, of so prodigious a size, that they exceed a foot in length.

At this resting-place begins the third passage, which is a hundred and twenty-four feet in length, and runs horizontally in a straight line to the inferior chamber. The height of this gallery is twenty-six feet, and the breadth six, with benches on each side of polished stone. Before the chamber are some stones, with which the way is embarrassed; but having surmounted this difficulty, you enter a chamber which is also covered with stones. This chamber is lined with granite, finely polished; but rendered extremely black, with the smoke of the torches used in examining it.

Having visited the lower chamber, you return to the resting place, and ascend upward by fixing your feet as before, till coming to the end of the fourth gallery, you meet with a little platform. You must then begin to climb again, but soon finding a new opening, where you may stand upright, you contemplate a little room, which is at first no more than a palm's breadth larger than the galleries, but afterward enlarges itself on both sides; and at length, stooping for the last time, you pass

The remainder of the fifth gallery, that leads in a horizontal line to the upper chamber. This is a very noble room in the centre of the pyramid at an equal distance from all the sides, and almost in the midst between the basis and the top. The floor, sides, and roof, are all formed of vast blocks of granite marble. From the bottom to the top are but six ranges of stone, and those which cover it of a stupendous length, like so many huge beams lying flat and traversing the room, nine of them forming the ceiling. This hall is something more than thirty-four feet in length; it is seventeen feet broad, and the height is nineteen feet and a half. On the left side is what is generally supposed to be a coffin, formed of one entire piece of granite marble, and uncovered at the top: on being struck with a key, it sounds like a bell. This is said to be the tomb of Cheops, king of Egypt. Its form is like that of an altar, hollowed within, and the stone is smooth and plain, without any relief. The exterior surfaces contains seven feet three inches and a half in length, three feet three inches and three-quarters in depth, and as much in breadth. The hollow part within is little more than six feet in length, and two feet in breadth. People in this room commonly discharge a pistol, which makes a report resembling thunder.

Herodotus says this pyramid was built by Cheops, that he reigned fifty years, twenty of which he employed in building this vast fabric, and that three-fourths of the inhabitants of Egypt were employed, by forced service, in hewing, transporting, and raising the stones. This building is supposed to have been erected about one hundred and sixty years before Solomon's temple, or 860 years before Christ. M. Maillet has given a very tediously circumstantial account of the labour used in gaining access to the interior building, and of the manner in which it was effected. He supposes the pyramid to be a vast Mausoleum; that in the upper chamber the body of the king was deposited, and in the lower one that of his queen. He forms this opinion, not on any traces which have been met with of a body; for none have been found, but because that, on the eastern side of the lower apartment, there is a niche, sunk three feet into the wall, and eight feet high by three wide; here, he is confident that a mummy had been placed, according to the custom of Egypt, and he is equally satisfied that the king was deposited in the upper hall, although there is no niche to confirm the fact. To the opinion of this learned Frenchman, may be opposed that of Dr. Shaw, who observes, that the great chest of granite, found in the upper chamber, or hall, of the pyramid, was probably intended for some religious use, it being of a different form from the stone coffins used in Egypt, which are constantly adorned with sacred characters, and made with a kind of pedestal at the feet; for the mummies always stand upright, where time or accident have not disturbed them, but this chest lies flat upon the floor. M. Maillet asserts, that when the body of the king who built this pyramid was deposited in this superb mausoleum, several living persons, destined never to come out of it, and to be buried alive with their prince, were introduced there at the same time; this he is convinced of

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from having observed two holes, one toward the north, the other toward the east, which are elevated three feet and an half above the pavement, one in an horizontal direction, which he says was designed to admit air to the persons enclosed in this tomb, and by this they were supplied with their food. When they entered this receptacle, he supposes that each person was furnished with a coffin, to receive him when dead, and that they successively rendered each other this last pious duty, until the last survivor, who must want that succour which his companions had derived from himself and others. The other hole, which descends to the bottom of the pyramid, served to empty dirt and filth. This conclusion, though very confidently drawn, being supported neither by any traditional evidence, nor by any thing found within the pyramid, a sceptic in such an opinion might ask; where are the remains of these coffins? what is become of the skeletons? Not even a bone of those victims, who are supposed to have been thus devoted to the manes of their prince, is known to have been found, and neither avarice nor curiosity could induce a removal of them. But though in this instance not one corroborating circumstance can be produced, yet it is certain that the practice of immuring the living in the tomb of a deceased king did prevail in those times,

Which first taught souls enslav'd, and realms undone,
Th' enormous faith of many made for one.

The traveller is no sooner out of the pyramid, than he dresses, wraps himself up warm, and drinks a glass of some spirituous liquor, to prevent the ill effects which might be produced by the sudden transition from an extremely hot to a temperate air. Having at length regained his natural heat, he ascends the pyramid, in order to enjoy a delightful prospect of the surrounding country. The method of ascending it is by the north-east corner, and when the steps are high, or one broken, it is necessary to search for a convenient place where the steps are entire, or a high step is mouldered, so as to render the ascent more easy.

The top does not end in a point, but in a little flat or square, consisting of nine stones, beside two that are wanting at the angles. Both on the top, in the entrance, and in the chambers, are the names of abundance of people, who at different times have visited this pyramid, and were willing to transmit to posterity the memory of having been there.

On approaching the second pyramid, it appears even higher than the first, which is owing to its being placed in a more elevated situation; for, in other respects, they are both of the same size, only the second is so well closed, that there is not the least mark to shew that it has been opened; and it is coated on the four sides with granite, so well joined and polished, that the boldest man would scarcely attempt to ascend it.

On the eastern side of this pyramid are the ruins of a temple, the stones of which are six feet broad, as many deep, and the most of them sixteen or seventeen feet long, and some of them twenty-two feet in

length. The whole building was a hundred and eighty feet in front, and a hundred and sixty in depth.

The great Pyramid is not the only one which has been opened ; there is another, the inside which appears constructed in the same manner. A few years ago, one of the beys tried to open the third in size, which is at Djira, to obtain the supposed treasure he imagined concealed there. He attempted this on the same side at which the great one has been opened ; but after forcing out two or three hundred stones, with considerable labour and expence, he relinquished his avaricious enterprise.

At some distance is a Sphynx, whose enormous bulk attracts the admiration of every beholder. It is cut out of the solid rock ; and Dr. Pocoke observes, that what some have thought joinings of the stones, are only veins in the rock. This extraordinary monument, which is said to have been the sepulchre of Amasis, is about twenty seven feet high ; the lower part of the neck, or beginning of the breast, is thirty-three feet wide, and it is about a hundred and thirteen feet from the fore-part of the neck to the tail ; but the sand is raised about it to such a height that the top of the bank can only be seen. This monument of antiquity is very much disfigured by the Mahometans, who are inspired by the precepts of their religion, with a detestation of every thing which bears the representation of a human being or any animal. Mr. Paw, in his *Recherches philosophiques sur les Egyptiens et les Chinois*, supposed that sphynxes found in Egypt, composed of the body of a virgin grafted on that of a lion, are images of the divinity, who was represented as an hermaphrodite. Mr. Savary, who rejects this conclusion, accounts for this symbol more satisfactorily, by saying, that, as it is under the signs of the Lion and of the virgin that the Nile swells, overflows its banks, and gives fertility to Egypt, the Sphynx was an hieroglyphic, which reminded the people of the most important event of the whole year.

At near ten miles distant from these pyramids are those of Sacerot or, as Mr. Volney writes it, Sakara, (I. 280) so called from a mean village of that name. These pyramids extends from north to south, and are situated at the foot of the mountains, in a plain that seems formed by nature for the use to which it is applied, it not being of great extent, but so high, that it is never overflowed by the Nile ; and there is reason to believe that the celebrated city of Memphis extended almost thither.

One of the pyramids, which rises above the rest, is called the Great Pyramid to the North. Mr. Norden measuring this structure, found that the east side extended six hundred and ninety feet, and the north side seven hundred and ten. The perpendicular height is three hundred and forty-five feet.

At the distance of a mile to the south-east is another, called the Great Pyramid to the South, which is about six hundred feet square at the bottom. It seems to have been cased all the way up, and is built within of hewn stone.

On a lower ground, about two miles to the east of the last great pyramid, is one built of unburned brick, which seems to have been made

of the mud of the Nile, it being a sandy black clay, with some pebbles and shells in it, and mixed up with chopped straw, in order to bind the clay together, as unburned bricks are at present usually made in Egypt, and other parts of the East. Some of these bricks are thirteen inches and a half long, six inches and a half broad, and four inches thick; but others were fifteen inches long, seven broad, and four inches three quarters in thickness, but were not laid so as to bind each other. This pyramid is much crumbled, and very ruinous. It extends two hundred and ten feet on the west side, and is a hundred and fifty feet high; and at the top is forty-three feet by thirty-five. It seems to have been built with five degrees, each being ten feet broad and thirty deep, yet the ascent is easy, on account of the bricks having crumbled away.

It seems not improbable that this pyramid was built by the Israelites, and that they also made the bricks of which it is formed; for Josephus says, that "when time had extinguished the memory of the benefits performed by Joseph, and the kingdom was transferred to another family, the Israelites were used with great rigour; they were ordered to cut canals for the Nile, to raise dykes, and erect fantastical pyramids."

Before we quit the subject, it is necessary to observe, that many learned men have been of the opinion that these pyramids were erected for the purpose of making astronomical observations, and to serve as sundials, by which the variation of the shadow, in proportion to its height, could be taken with a degree of accuracy. What supports this opinion is, that two of the sides of every one of these buildings stand exactly north and south, so as to be true meridian lines, and the other two sides stand as exactly east and west. Plato first suggested this idea; to which Mr. Volney objects, by saying, "it could not be necessary to erect eleven observatories so near each other, as the pyramids of different sizes are;" and in the support of the opinion that they were Mansolea, he expresses himself as follows: "This sterile spot, remote from all cultivated land, possesses the qualities requisite for an Egyptian cemetery, and near it was that of the whole city of Memphis, the plain of Mummies. If we consider all these things we shall no longer doubt that the pyramids are only tombs: we shall cease to wonder that the despots of a superstitious people should have made it a point of importance and pride to build for their skeletons, impenetrable habitations, when we are informed, that even before the time of Moses it was a dogma at Memphis, that souls at the expiration of six thousand years should return to the bodies they had quitted. It was for this reason that so much pains were taken to preserve the body from putrefaction, and that endeavours were used to retain even its form by means of spices, bandages, and every kind of preservative against corruption."

In so symbolical a religion as that of the ancient Egyptians, it is not improbable that the pyramidal form might convey some sacred meaning; and perhaps the pyramids themselves might be objects, representing the Deity, and to which they offered their adorations; just as the Paphian Venus was, according to Tacitus, not of a human, but of a

pyramidal form; as is also the black stone worshiped by the Gentoos of India, under the name of Jaggernaut.

Chapter XI.

The Catacombs and Egyptian Mummies.

In the same plain in which these last pyramids are placed are the Catacombs, the entrance into each of which is by a kind of well, about four feet square, and twenty feet deep, cut through a flaty rock, covered with sand, which being moved by the wind, sometimes fills up these entrances. However, some of them are cased as far as the depth of the sand with large unburnt bricks. People are usually let down with ropes, when being got to the bottom, they find a passage five feet wide, and about fifty feet in length, filled up very high with sand, and having got to the end of it, turn down another passage to the left hand about six feet high, on one side of which are little rooms, with benches about two feet above the floor, and on the other side are narrow cells just big enough to receive a large coffin. At the end of this alley is another, which is narrower, and on each side are niches that seem designed for coffins placed upright. This passage leads to rooms in the form of an oblong square, filled with the remains of mummies. Our author observes, that here the inferior persons of a family were probably deposited, while the heads of the families were placed in the niches. Each family had originally, perhaps, its burial place; and as the family increased they branched out these sepulchral grottos, that every descendant might have a separate place for his family*.

* Savary observes, that "their tombs, dug in the rock, and closed by a stone of proportionate size, were covered with sand; and these bodies, embalmed with such care, preserved with so much respect, the inhabitants of Saccara drag from their resting place, and, shameless, sell them to foreigners. This is the plain of mummies, and here is the well of birds, which is descended by the aid of a rope; it leads into subterranean galleries, filled with earthen vessels, which contain the sacred birds. They are seldom found whole, because the Arabs break them to search for idols of gold. They never take travellers to the places where they have found the most precious things, but carefully close them, and have secret passages by which they descend. The duke de Chaulnes, when travelling in Egypt, penetrated far into these labyrinths, sometimes on his knees, and at others crawling. Preinstructed by the Honorable Wortley Montague, he carefully visited Egypt, and came to one of these passages, which was closed at the entrance, by branches of the date tree, interwoven, and covered with sand, where he observed

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In these catacombs are found the remains of embalmed bodies, swathed up and down, and sometimes coffins standing upright and entire, made of sycamore or Pharaoh's fig tree, that have continued in these subterraneous apartments above three thousand years, though the wood is to appearance spongy and porous. The upper part of the coffin is commonly shaped like a head, with a face painted upon it; the rest is a continued trunk, and the end for the feet is made broad and flat, for it to stand upright in the repository. Other coffins are made of stone, and they are generally adorned with carved work, representing hieroglyphical figures.

Upon opening the coffins the bodies appear to be wrapped up in a linen shroud, upon which are fastened several linen scrolls painted with hieroglyphic characters. These scrolls commonly run down the belly and sides, or are fixed on the knees and legs. On a kind of linen head piece, which covers the face, the countenance of the person is represented in gold, or painted; but these paintings are very much decayed by time. The whole body is swathed by fillets, or narrow bandages of linen, wrapped round in so curious a manner, with so many windings and so often upon each other, that is supposed a corpse has seldom less than a thousand ells of filleting. Those especially about the head and face are laid on with such surprising neatness, that some appearance of the shape of the eyes, nose, and mouth, may be plainly perceived.

Dr. Pococke brought a mummy to England, which was in a coffin made of wood, the seams of which were filled up with linen and fine plaster. Four folds of cloth were over the head, and the upper one was painted blue. Beneath these was a composition, about half an inch thick, of gum and cloth burnt by the heat of the things applied to it, and over the skin was a coat of gum, or bitumen, of the thickness of a wafer. The back part of the head was filled with bitumen, which had been poured in at the nose, and had penetrated even into the bone of the skull. The body was bound round with a bandage of linen tape, about three quarters of an inch broad, under which were four folds of cloth, then a swathe two inches broad, and under that eight different bandages of the same breadth, laid acro'st from the shoulders to the hips on the other side: under this was a crust of linen, about an inch thick, burnt almost to ashes, but sticking together by means of the gums with which it had been smeared. The arms were laid acro'st the breast, the right hand over the left, and both laying towards the face. From the hips to the feet were eight bandages twelve inches broad, and under these were bandages an inch

hieroglyphics, in relief, executed with the utmost perfection: but his offers could not prevail on them either to let him take casts or drawings of the figures. The duke thinks these hieroglyphics, so highly finished as to give a perfect image of the objects they represent, might become a key to those the simple outlines of which are only traced, and form a kind of alphabet to that unintelligible tongue."

thick, confirmed by time and the heat of the drugs ; but the outer bandages did not appear to have been smeared with gums. The coffin in which the body was put was formed of two pieces of wood hallowed so as to receive it, and being put together, were fastened with broad pegs in the top, and fixed in holes in the lower part. This coffin was in the shape of an human body, as bound up after its being embalmed ; and both the coffin and body, wrapped up in linen, were covered with a thin plaster and painted. See an account of a mummy inspected at London, 1763, in the Phil. Trans. for 1764.

Among the catacombs is one for the birds and other animals worshipped by the ancient Egyptians ; for when they happened to find them dead they embalmed them, and wrapped them up with the same care as the human bodies. The catacomb is about thirty feet deep, and has the same kind of entrance, only the passage from it is about eight feet wide, and almost filled with sand. It is also much more magnificent than the others. The birds are deposited in earthen vases, covered over and stopped close with mortar. In one of the irregular apartments are large jars, that might be for more bulky animals. The birds were embalmed by dipping them in gums and aromatic drugs, and were bound up like the human bodies, with many folds of linen.

Chapter XII.

The Ruins of Busiris, Heliopolis, the celebrated Labyrinth, Antinopolis, Hermopolis. Some Remarkable Antiquities on the Side of a Mountain: Those at Gaua Kiebra; the Castle of Babylon; the ancient City of Memphis; with a particular Account of the miraculous Serpent Haridi.

SOME of the ruins of the cities and temples of Egypt, like those of Palmyra and Balbec, raise our ideas of their ancient magnificence and grandeur ; while others only show the places where the most splendid cities once stood ; the vast length of time since they were built, having levelled them with the dust, and only left a few scattered monuments of the most superb structures, as testimonials of the truth of history, and as specimens of the architecture of the early ages before it was improved and carried to perfection by the Greeks. Those of which we shall treat in this chapter are of the last kind, and the most imperfect.

A little to the northward of Cairo is the village of Baalbait, situated on one of those artificial eminences on which probably stood Busiris, a city celebrated for its temple dedicated to Isis ; there being the remains

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of a temple, the most costly in its materials of any in Egypt. From these ruins the temple appears to have been about two hundred feet long and an hundred broad, and at about a hundred feet distance it is encompassed by a mound raised to keep out the Nile. The outside of this structure was of a grey granite, and the insides and columns of red, the capitals being the head of Isis. There seems to have been four rows of twelve columns each in the temple; but what most commands the attention of the curious is, the exquisite beauty of the sculpture; for though the figures are only about four feet high, there is something so fine and so divine in the mien of the deities and priests that exceeds imagination. But the natives are constantly employed in destroying these fragments of antiquity, and frequently cut the columns in order to make them into mill-stones.

Two leagues distance northward from Cairo are the remains of the ancient city of Heliopolis, the On of the Scriptures, a city of great antiquity, famous for the worship of the sun. A large mound encompasses the whole, which Strabo says, (book xvii.) was formed to place it out of the reach of inundations; and at the entrance on the W. are the ruins of a sphynx of a bright shining yellow marble; and almost opposite to the gate is an obelisk sixty-seven feet and a half high. The priests of Heliopolis were the most famous of all Egypt for their skill in philosophy and astronomy, and were the first who computed time by years of three hundred and sixty-five days. Herodotus came to this city to be instructed in all learning of the Egyptians; and when Strabo visited it, he was shewn the apartments of Plato and Eudoxus. Heliopolis had a temple to the sun, where a particular place was set apart for the feeding of the sacred ox, which was there adored under the name of Mnevis, as he was at Memphis under that of Apis. The credulous people looked upon him as a god, whilst the priests considered him only as an animal of prodigious use in agriculture, in a country where he serves for tillage, and, during six months in the year, to water the earth; for all the time that the Nile is low, oxen are employed in turning draw-wheels to raise the water into cisterns, whence it is dispersed through the grounds. For this reason they never destroy this animal at its birth, and to kill a calf is prohibited in Egypt. As this superstitious veneration for oxen was advantageous to the priests, by procuring offerings, and rendering them masters of the oracles, they made use of every art to excite and maintain it. The temples of Heliopolis had fallen to decay in the time of Augustus. Strabo relates, that one every where saw, strongly imprinted, the marks of the fury of Cambyses, who laid this city waste with fire and sword. Of the four obelisks built by Sochis in that town, two were removed to Rome, another was destroyed by the Arabs, and the last of them is still standing on its pedestal. It is composed of a block of Thebaic stone perfectly well polished, and is sixty-eight feet high, without reckoning its base, and about six feet and a half wide on each aspect. It is covered with hieroglyphics. This beautiful monument, and a sphynx of yellowish marble, overset in the mud, are the only remains of Heliopolis.

This city had also a college of priests, which the barbarity of Cambyses destroyed.

At a small distance to the S. of the above obelisk is a village called by the Arabs Mataree, or Ain chams, fountain of the sun, on account of its situation near the ancient Heliopolis, and from its having a spring of fresh water, which is the only one existing in Egypt. Here it is said the Holy Family lay for some time concealed when they fled into Egypt; and they add, that being in danger from some bad people, a tree opened and became hollow to receive and shelter them. The Coptics even pretend to shew the very tree, which is hollow, and of the sort called Pharaoh's fig: they take away pieces of it as sacred relics; but the Romans say, that the tree fell down, and was carried away by the monks of Jerusalem.

Near Mataree is the Castle of Babylon, built by a colony of Babylonians. Whilst the Romans were lords of Egypt, they kept at this fortress, in garrison, one of the three legions which were stationed in this colony. The Persians, worshippers of the sun, kept up a perpetual fire in this place, which gave rise to the name bestowed on it by the Arabs, of the Castle of the Lights.

Memphis, the ancient capital of Egypt, which in its flourishing state was seven leagues in circumference, and contained magnificent temples and palaces, which the art of man erected with the vain hope of rendering them everlasting; this renowned city is now so entirely subverted, that the learned have been much divided in their opinions concerning the place where it stood. Pliny describes it as situated two leagues to the southward of the pyramids; Mr. Savary supposes it to have stood where is now a small town named Meaph. According to Strabo, here was a celebrated temple to Vulcan, and another to Serapis. Memphis arose when the kings of Egypt no longer took up their residence at Thebes, and it became the centre of commerce, of wealth, and of the arts, until it was destroyed by Cambyses. This city was the residence of the Pharaohs, and here the patriarch Joseph, when overseer of the corn of Egypt, established his magazines.

At a place called the town of Caroun, is the spot on which stood the famous Labyrinth which, according to Herodotus, was built by the twelve kings of Egypt, when the government was divided into twelve parts, as so many palaces for them to meet in, and transact the affairs of state and religion. This was so extraordinary a building, that Diodorus came to Egypt on purpose to see it, and formed the Labyrinth in Crete for king Minos on its model.

"This labyrinth," says Herodotus, "has twelve saloons or covered courts, with gates opposite to each other, six towards the S. and six towards the N. in continued lines. They are surrounded by the same outward wall. The apartments are on two floors, the one under ground, and the other over them, and are three thousand in all, each floor consisting of fifteen hundred. Those above ground I myself have seen and gone through, so that I speak from my own knowledge; but those be-

neath being the sepulchres of the kings, and of the sacred crocodiles, the rulers of the Egyptians were by no means willing to shew them. The upper apartments are greater than any other human works; for the outlets at the top, and the various windings through the saloons, gave me infinite surprise, as I passed from a saloon into apartments, and from apartments into bed-chambers, and into other rooms out of bed-chambers, and from apartments into saloons. The roof of the whole is stone as well as the walls. The latter are adorned with sculptures: each saloon has a peristyle of white stones admirably joined together. Quite close to the line where the labyrinth terminates, is a pyramid of two hundred and forty feet, on which large animals are engraven, and the entrance into it is under ground." Little, however, is now to be seen of these boasted pieces of art, but heaps of ruins, broken columns, shattered walls and entablatures. Among the rest is the foundation of an oblong square building formed of a reddish stone or marble.

Strabo, who visited this immense building several ages after Herodotus, describes, like him, the winding passages, the varied routes with which art had so contrived these labyrinths, that it was impossible, without a guide, to enter any one of these palaces, or to get out after having entered.

A little farther to the S. are the ruins of the city of Antinopolis, called by Mr. Savary Antinoe, built by Hadrian in honour of Antinous his favourite, who was drowned there, but now named by the Arabs Esfine. Among these ruins are still standing a large pillar, with a Corinthian capital, on the top of which was a square stone, whereon a statue was probably placed. There is also a fine gate of the Corinthian order, of excellent workmanship.

Antinopolis was built near the ruins of Abydus, where the Egyptians revered the oracle of the god Besa. This oracle, one of the most ancient of Egypt, continued famous even in the time of the emperor Constantius. Ammianus Marcellinus says, that all the neighbouring people went to consult him, and assembled at a certain period to celebrate festivals to his honour. The Arabs call Antinopolis "the city of the Magi," from its vicinity to Abydus. Mr. Savary says, "did not the inscriptions and the testimonies of historians, make known the founder of Antinoe, the arches of the gates, the capitals of the pillars, the deficiency of hieroglyphics, would inform us that it was not the work of the Egyptians. We admire in these remains, that taste, that elegance, the Romans learned from the Greeks, but we see nothing of that majesty, that solidity, that marvellous grandeur, which the people of Egypt knew how to give to their buildings, and which other nations have never been able to obtain."

Farther to the S. is a mountain called Shebat el Kofferis, on the side of which are some remarkable antiquities. After ascending the mountain for about two hours, you arrive at a gate which leads into a great saloon, supported by hexagonal pillars cut out of the solid rock. The

walls are adorned with paintings, which are still plainly to be distinguished, and the gold that was employed glitters on all sides.

A little farther to the S. is Gaua-Kiebra, where still remains a beautiful portico of a temple, containing eighteen pillars in three rows: these have a singular kind of capital, and their shafts are enriched with hieroglyphics, executed in a masterly manner. This temple appears to have been extremely magnificent, not only from the grandeur of the portico, but from the vast stones which formed the walls, one of which Dr. Pococke found to be twenty-one feet long, eight broad, and four deep; and another thirty feet long, and five broad. At some distance behind the portico is a stone shaped like the top of an obelisk, which has on one side of it a niche, as if for a statue, and is adorned with hieroglyphics.

At some distance to the S. is the grotto of the famous serpent called Haridi, where is the tomb of a pretended Turkish saint, adorned with a cupola raised above the mountain. The Arabs affirm, that this saint, who was named Scheilk Haridi, dying in this place, was buried here; and that, by a particular favour of the Almighty, he was transformed into a serpent that never dies, but heals diseases, and bestows favours on all who implore his aid. Of this serpent Dr. Pococke, Mr. Norden, and Mr. Savary, have given a very full account, and perfectly agree in the particulars they relate of it. Absurd as such a belief is, it is not more so than the opinion which prevailed among the ancient Romans, of Esculapius entering into a serpent, and under that form being brought to Rome and curing a pestilence.

This miraculous serpent, it seems, pays great respect to persons, and is more propitious to the great lords than to the poor: for if a governor be attacked with any disorder, the serpent has the complaisance to suffer himself to be carried to his house; but a person of the common rank must not only make a vow to recompense him for his trouble, but send a spotless virgin on the important embassy; for the fair alone can have any influence on him; and if her virtue should be the least fullied, he would be inexorable. On her entering into his presence she makes him a compliment, and, with the most humble submission, intreats him to suffer himself to be carried to the person who wants his assistance. The serpent who can refuse nothing to female virtue, begins at first with moving its tail: the virgin redoubles her intreaties and at length the reptile springs up to her neck, places itself in her bosom, and there remains quiet, while it is carried in state, in the midst of loud acclamations, to the house of the person who dispatched the embassadres. No sooner is it brought into the room, than the patient begins to find himself relieved. Yet this miraculous physician does not withdraw; for he is very willing to remain some hours with the patient, if during the whole time they take care to regale his priests, who never leave him. All this is performed to admiration, provided no Christian or other unbeliever comes in, whose presence, 'tis pretended, would disturb the feast; for this sagacious serpent, on perceiving

him, would immediately disappear ; the priests would search for him in vain, and it would be impossible to find him : for was he carried to the other side of the Nile, he would return invisibly to his dwelling in the tomb. The Arabs even boldly assert, that were he cut in pieces, the parts would instantly join again ; and that, being destined to be immortal, nothing can put a period to his life.

The priests are said by Mr. Savary to have been bold enough to make a public proof of his immortality, by cutting this serpent in pieces in presence of the emir, when they placed the pieces for two hours under a vase, which being then lifted up, the animal appeared perfectly united, the priests doubtless having the address to substitute one exactly resembling it : but Mr. Norden says, the emir Akmin ordered the priests to make this trial in his presence, but they declined the experiment.

Even the Christians, who ought to claim a degree of wisdom superior to the Arabs, have the folly to believe that this pretended saint is the devil himself, whom God has permitted to mislead these blind and ignorant people ; and in this belief they are confirmed by a tradition, that to this place the angel Raphael banished the devil Asmodeus, whom in *Job* viii. 3. he is said to fend into Egypt.

This serpent is of the kind described by Herodotus, and which was held sacred in ancient Egypt. They were called Agatho Daemon, "Good Genius," and were the emblem of Cneeph, a symbolical deity, who denoted the divine goodness. Many of these serpents were found in the Thebae of Upper Egypt, which are perfectly harmless. Nothing is easier than to make a tame serpent obey certain signs. The virginity of the ambassadress is secured by her being so young as to be free from suspicion ; and serpents are known to be attracted by certain odours and herbs, with which the girl might be plentifully supplied ; at least she is adorned with chaplets and garlands of flowers, in which they take care not to forget such as are agreeable to the serpent. In short, if it be asked how it is possible that it should disappear from the sight of so many people, it may be answered, it is sufficient to conceive that these priests are excellent jugglers, and there will be no difficulty in imagining them capable of conveying away the serpent in the presence of a great number of spectators without the most attentive and quick-sighted being able to perceive it.

Chapter XIII.

The Ruins of Tentyra and Thebes.

STILL farther up the Nile was situated the city of Tentyra, the inhabitants of which paid extraordinary adorations to Venus and Mars, to each of whom they built a temple. From the many heaps

of ruins seen here, the city appears to have been of great extent, and to have been much frequented since it was in its ancient splendor. People seem to have lived even in the temples, and several houses have been built of unburnt brick on the top of the great temple, which is two hundred feet long, and forty-five feet broad. The principal remains of the ancient buildings are near each other; these are two gates and four temples. The grand temple already mentioned appears to be that of Isis, and seems entire, only the apartments which appear to have been built at the top are destroyed, and six or seven of the rooms which have been formed below are filled up.

There is an ascent to the top by ten flights of steps. The pillars are adorned with large capitals of the head of Isis, each capital having four faces, one on each side, and over them are compartments in basso reliefo, finely executed, and in a noble taste. At the end of the grand room are four stories of hieroglyphics in seven compartments, each of which has two or three human figures, but some of them are defaced. There are likewise four stories of hieroglyphics on the outside, and it is not improbable that before the ground was raised there were five both within and without. On the outside of the S. end are five colossal figures, and two more beautiful than the rest stand at each corner. Round the top of the edifice are several spouts, with an ornament over them representing the head and shoulders of the sphynx.

The ruins of the ancient city of Thebes are the most considerable in Egypt, and are generally known by the name of "The antiquities of Carnack and Luxerien," two villages situated among those ruins.

Homer makes his hero Achilles draw a striking picture of Thebes, when, venting his resentment against Agamemnon, he spurns at any gift which could be offered to purchase his friendship for such a man.

Not all proud Thebes' unrival'd walls contain,
The world's great Empress on th' Egyptian plain,
That pours her heroes through an hundred gates,
And spreads her conquests o'er a thousand states.

Iliad IX. 500, &c.

The poet, as he is emphatically called by Longinus, in this instance, however, seems to have departed from his wonted accuracy, for it does not appear that this famous city had any gates, being at no time encompassed with walls, as no historian makes mention of any, nor are there at this day any traces of them. Diodorus Siculus, to bring off the bard, supposes that he means the gates of the temples.

The great and celebrated city of Thebes was extended on both sides the river, and according to some authors was built by Osiris, and according to others by Busiris II. who appointed its circuit, adorned it with magnificent buildings, and rendered it the most opulent city upon earth. It was originally called Diospolis, or the city of Jupiter, and afterward obtained the name of Thebes. Diodorus Siculus observes, "that not

only this king, but many of his successors, improved the city with presents of gold and silver, with ivory, and a multitude of colossal statues; and that no city under the sun was so adorned with obelisks of one entire stone. There were four temples of amazing size and beauty. The most ancient of these was thirteen stadia, or more than a mile and half in circumference, its height forty-five cubits, and the thickness of its walls twenty-four feet. The buildings have remained to modern times; but the gold and silver, the ivory, and precious stones, were carried away by the Persians, when Cambyses set fire to the temples of Egypt. It is said that the Persians having transferred this opulence to Asia, and having carried artists with them from Egypt, built the magnificent places of Persepolis, Susa, and others in Media. It is added, the riches of Egypt were at that time so great, that from the ruins, after plundering and burning, were taken above three hundred talents of gold and two thousand three hundred talents of silver."

Of the four remarkable temples mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, Dr. Pococke, Bishop of Ossory, imagines that which he viewed was the same which the ancient historian mentions as of a most extraordinary size, since the ruins of this stupendous building extended near half a mile in length. The description Diodorus has given of the height and thickness of the walls has been thought extravagant, and beyond all the rules of probability; but, on examining the remains of this temple, it will appear, that in both these respects they in some places exceed the account he has given of them. It is true, that Diodorus, who lived about fifty years before the christian æra, took his account from preceding writers, for even in his time these buildings existed only in ruins. This temple has eight grand entrances, to three of which were avenues of great length between sphynxes, two of them having sixty of these statues on each side. When these are passed, at one of the entrances, you come to four grand gates at a considerable distance behind each other, in a direct line to the temple. They are about thirty-five feet deep, a hundred and fifty in length, and before the ground was raised must have been from fifty to sixty feet high. These structures lessen every way like a pyramid, from the bottom to the top: the first is of red granite finely polished, and in a beautiful manner adorned on the outside with hieroglyphics, in four series, from the top downward, and three on the inside, in each of which are the figures of two men finely executed, and bigger than the life. Farther on each side are colossal figures, about fifteen feet high, with hieroglyphics under them; and in this last manner the other gates are adorned, but without the compartments. On each side of these gates there also seem to have been colossal statues.

About a hundred and fifty paces to the W. is another superb entrance, with the same kind of avenue of sphynxes: and all the rest have the appearance of extraordinary magnificence.

The grand entrance to the W. which may be termed either a gate, or a front to the great court before the temple, is extremely noble, and

yet has the greatest plainness and simplicity, without any ornaments, and nearly resembles what among us is termed "the rustic." It is forty feet broad, and the bottom is a solid wall of that thickness.

Though the wall of the inner temple is greatly ruined, Dr. Pococke says it has more grandeur and magnificence than is to be found in any other building he ever saw. The door is very high, and yet in a just proportion; and the walls on each side are beautifully adorned with hieroglyphics and the figures of men in six compartments, above nine feet high, and twelve wide, every compartment having the figures of three men. Each part of the temple, both within and without, is covered with hieroglyphics; and on the outside to the N. are carved representations of battles, with horses and chariots, one of which is drawn by stags.

On either side of the entrance into the E. end of the temple is an obelisk sixty-three feet four inches high, and six feet square. Farther to the E. are two other obelisks, seventy-three feet high, and seven feet six inches square: but one of them is fallen down. These obelisks are all of red granite, and covered with hieroglyphics.

These ruins are scattered many miles round, and there are the remains of several other temples; and among the rest one which appears to have been round, and a hundred and seventy-five feet in diameter. Mr. Bruce says these temples appear more ancient, but are neither so entire nor so magnificent as those of Dandera, which is still a considerable town. Its latitude he settles at 26^{deg.} 10^{min.} N.

That part of Thebes, or Diospolis, situated on the W. of the river, is called by Mr. Bruce, El Gourni, from a village of that name built near the ruins. There is in this place a very singular street; for the rocky ground rising on each side of it, about ten feet high, has on each hand a row of rooms, some of which are supported by pillars; and as there is not here the least sign of raised buildings, Dr. Pococke remarks, that he could not help imagining that, in the earliest times, these caverns might serve as houses, and be the first invention after that of tents, when they might be contrived as a better shelter from the weather and the coldness of the nights.

Here the traveller, passing through some other vallies, where the mountains rise to a great height, comes to a round opening like an amphitheatre, and ascending it by a narrow steep passage, arrives at the sepulchres of the kings of Thebes, which are formed in the rocks. It is about a hundred feet wide, between high steep precipices, in which grottos are cut in a most beautiful manner. Long galleries, or passages are formed under the mountains out of a close white free stone that cuts like chalk, and is as smooth as the finest stucco-work. Generally there are four or five of these galleries, one within another, from thirty to fifty feet long, and from ten to fifteen feet high, leading to a spacious room, in which is the king's tomb, or coffin, with his figure cut in relief, or painted upon it, at full length. Both the ceiling and sides of the rooms are cut with hieroglyphics of birds and beasts; some of them

AN ACCOUNT

painted, and almost as fresh as if they were but just finished, though they cannot be less than upwards of two thousand years old.

In a large room belonging to another of the grottos is the statue of a man holding a sceptre in his hand, and on the ceiling is painted a large figure of a man holding a particular kind of sceptre, with wings extending below his feet, and covering his whole body. On each side of the entrance are four men cut in the stone, above the natural size, with the heads of hawks and other animals.

On the S. side of these mountains are two very extensive apartments; one of them has a descent of ten steps to a spacious area cut in the rock, which leads to a room supported by square pillars, also cut out of the solid rock, and beyond it is a long room supported by pillars on each side. Beyond these rooms are apartments, to which there is a descent by several steps, and one part leads to a gallery cut round the rock, which has apartments on one side, and in them are holes cut perpendicularly down to other apartments below, where there are doors and openings, and probably as many rooms as above. "One would not imagine," says Dr. Pococke, "that these were the habitations of the living, and that they were cut under those of the kings of Thebes, if they were not themselves palaces, to which those princes retired to avoid the heat."

The other apartments are cut in a small hill near the appearance of a grand entrance under the mountains. To the W. is a room that has a well turned arch, and appears to have been used as a Christian church; for the hieroglyphics, which are in small columns, and extremely well cut, have been covered with plaster, on which is painted Christ, encompassed with a glory.

A little to the S. E. are the ruins of a large temple, and at a distance from it the ruins of a pyramidal gate, and of a very large colossal statue, broken off about the middle of the trunk. It is twenty-one feet broad at the shoulders; the ear is three feet long, and from the top of the head to the bottom of the neck, it measures eleven feet. The head is eighteen feet in circumference. "This gigantic statue," says Mr. Savary, "is inferior only to that of Memnon. The remains of the buildings which belonged to this temple cover a mile of ground, and leave the mind deeply impressed with its magnificence."

In the first court of the temple are two rows of square pillars, on each side of which is a statue, but their heads are broken off. Each of these statues has the *lituus*, or *angur's* staff, in one hand, and the *flagellum* or *whip* in the other, as is commonly seen in the statues of *Otris*.

A great number of pillars, belonging to the temple, are still standing, and many others are destroyed. Their thickness and solidity give them at a distance a noble appearance, and on approaching them the eye is entertained with the hieroglyphics; and when you are near them their colours have a fine effect. This sort of painting has neither shade nor degradation. The figures are encrusted with it like painting in enamel; and Mr. Norden observes, that it surpasses in strength every

thing he had seen of the kind, it being superior in beauty to the al-fresco and Mosaic work, with the advantage of being more durable. "It is surprising to see," says he, "how the gold, ultra marine, and other colours have preserved their lustre to the present age."

At a considerable distance from the temple are what are called the colossal statues of Memnon, which front the Nile. The first appears to represent a man sitting, and the other a woman in the same posture, and they are both fifty feet high from the bases of the pedestals to the top of their heads. They are seated upon stones fifteen feet in height, and as many in breadth: but the back part of each stone is higher than the forepart by a foot and a half, and they are placed on plain pedestals five feet high. The statue to the N. has been broken off at the middle, and has been built up with five tier of stones; but the other is of one single stone: the feet have the toes broken off, and the features are mouldered away by time. The sides of their seats are covered with hieroglyphics; on the pedestal of the statue, which has been broken, is a Greek epigram; and on their insteps and legs are Greek and Latin inscriptions, some of them epigrams in honour of Memnon; but most of them are testimonies of those who have heard his sound; for one of them has been thought the famous statue of Memnon, which it is pretended, once a day, uttered a sound, which some have attempted to account for from the rays of the sun striking upon it. Strabo relates, that he heard the sound toward six o'clock in the morning (answering to our twelve at noon) but he is strongly inclined to suspect that it was produced by some collusion.

At a little distance from these statues, are the ruins of several others particularly one of yellow granite almost entire, and twelve feet long from the top of the head to the thigh.

At Luxeria or Luxor, on the other side of the Nile, are the remains of a large and magnificent temple, which was also a part of ancient Thebes, and is called by Pococke the sepulchre of Olymonde; it is situated on the S. of the antiquities just described. But Savary endeavours to prove, from the authority of Diodorus Siculus, lib. i. that this is not the sepulchre of that king. On approaching it you come to two obelisks, which are probably the finest in the world; they are at present sixty feet high, and might be seventy or eighty, according as the ground has risen, which is certainly a great deal; they are seven feet and a half square, and at bottom might be eight feet. The hieroglyphics extend in three columns down each side, and are cut with a flat bottom an inch and a half deep, and the granite has perfectly retained its polish, which is as fine as can be imagined. On the top of each side a person sits on a throne, and another offers him something on his knees. These figures are likewise below. Lower down are three hawks, then three bulls, and at the distance of about every foot is an owl. There are also monkeys, heads of camels, hares, dogs, serpents, birds and insects.

At a small distance is a pyramidal gate two hundred feet long, and at present fifty-four above the ground. On each side of the entrance is

a colossal statue, which rises thirteen feet a half above the surface of the earth, though the shoulders are only three feet and a half above the ground. In the front of the pyramidal gate are windows and sculpture, particularly a person seated on the throne, holding out one hand, in which he has a sceptre or a staff, and surrounded by others in postures of adoration. On the other side a man is represented in a car, galloping and shooting with a bow, and followed by many chariots. It may have a relation to the wars of this king against the Bactrians. Within this gate is a court almost filled with cottages, containing some pillars that once formed part of a colonade, beyond which was another gate, now in ruins, and beyond that another court, which had a large and beautiful altar in the middle, and the history of the king was cut all round on the walls. The walls of the rooms are adorned with sculpture; among which a Deity is represented carried by eighteen men in a kind of boat, preceded and followed by a person holding a particular ensign. Here are also a person sitting, and another kneeling to him, with instruments of music, and men kneeling who have the heads of hawks; and also a man leading four bulls with a string.

We shall conclude the account of these stupendous proofs of the executive powers of man in a very remote and indefinite period of time, with the following remark of Mr. Savary: "Such are the remains of Thebes! which prove to what an astonishing degree the arts were carried in Egypt. Every thing about it was noble and majestic. It seems as if the kings of that country, whose glory will never perish whilst her obelisks and her columns remain, laboured only for immortality. They had constructed works to brave the injuries of time, but they were unable to secure them against the barbarism of conquerors."

Chapter XIV.

The ruins of Esne, or Effenay; the temple of Pallas, at Latapolis; one at the ancient City of Apollinopolis; with the ruins of Comombo, Elephantine, and Philæ.

At Esne, a considerable town farther up the river, are the remains of a magnificent temple, that is closed on three sides, and has in the front twenty-four pillars that seem well preserved. A channelled border runs all round the top of the edifice, and in the middle of the front is a cartouche, or ornament like those seen on all the principal gates of Egypt. A semi-corona borders the whole edifice, the sides of which are filled with hieroglyphical figures that appear of the most ancient kind, and seem to have been executed in haste. It is remarkable, that among all the pillars of this temple there is not one capital that resembles another; for though the proportions are the same, the ornaments are different. The inside of the edifice is blackened by the smoke

of the fires formerly made there ; however, every part of it is well preserved, except the gate, and the intermediate spaces between the front columns, which the Arabs have filled up, in order to shut up their cattle in the temple, which is at present applied to no other use.

At about three miles from this temple is another, which Dr. Pococke supposes to be the temple of Pallas at Latopolis, where both that goddess and the fish Latus were worshipped. There are here also several different kinds of capitals, some of which resemble the Corinthian, but have a very flat relief. This temple seems to have been used as a church, there being some Coptic inscriptions on the walls.

At Edfou, where was once situated the city of Apollinopolis, or of Apollo, is a noble temple and a grand pyramidal gate, which the Turks have converted into a citadel. The temple, which was dedicated to Apollo, is in a manner buried under ground ; and the Arabs have made no scruple of employing what they have been able to take away in erecting some pigeon-houses.

Still farther to the S. is the village of Comombo, called by Mr. Savary Coum Ombo, with the ancient Ombos, of which they are some beautiful ruins, which it is impossible for a curious traveller to view without great satisfaction. The inhabitants of Ombos, says Savary paid honours to the crocodile. A noble building rests upon twenty-three well wrought pillars, adorned with hieroglyphics : the stones that cover the top are of a prodigious size, and the architrave which is at present split, was originally a single stone. Crocodiles abound here ; they may be seen to descend in droves from the islands of sand, and to swim in long strings in the river.

Farther up the Nile is the island Elephantine, in which was a city of the same name, though it is only about half a league in length, and at the S. end about three quarters of a mile broad. In this island was a temple to Cnuphis, and a Nilometer to measure the rise of the Nile, each of which is described by Strabo, but the latter no longer exists. —In the midst of the island are the remains of one side of a magnificent gate of red granite, finely adorned with hieroglyphics. Its southern part is mountainous and covered with ruins, most of which is buried under the earth. Among others is an ancient edifice still standing, though covered with earth at the top, as well as on the sides, and this is still called the temple of the serpent Cnuphis, or Cnept, under which Symbol the ancient Egyptians adored the beneficence of the Creator, as they did his power under the name of Phtha, and his wisdom under that of Neith. The walls are covered with hieroglyphics, but are bedaubed with dirt, and blackened by the smoke of the fires made there by the shepherds.

Near this island stood the ancient city of Sienna, which is described by Strabo ; and now a small village, called Assouan, occupies a part of the ground, and is the southern extremity of Egypt. This town is immediately under the tropic. Strabo describes a well here which marked the summer solstice. "That day," says he, "is discovered by the

gnomon, or hand, of the dial giving no shadow at noon. At that moment the vertical sun darts his rays to the bottom of the well, and his whole image is reflected by the water at the bottom." The Nilometer just mentioned, is thus described by the same geographer. "It is a well formed of a single stone, which being placed on the banks of the Nile, serves to measure the great, the moderate, and the smallest overflowings; for the water of this well rises and falls with the river. Lines marked on the walls point out the instant of its increase, that of attaining its greatest height, and the intermediate degrees of its elevation. The persons whose office it is to make these observations, by signals which are well understood, announce it to the country around, in order that every body may know what will be the increase of the year. Indeed the height to which the Nile will rise is generally known, long before it begins even to overflow its banks. This foreknowledge enables the husbandman to make the most beneficial distribution of the waters, by forming the dykes and canals. The officers appointed to collect the tributes, proportion them to the degree of the expected inundation." At present, when the Nile does not rise above fifteen cubits, Egypt pays no tribute to the Grand Signior.

Farther to the S. is the island of Philæ, on the confines of Ethiopia, which is high and very small, it not exceeding a quarter of a mile in length, and half a quarter in breadth; and it appears that there were no other buildings in the island but what had a relation to the temples: for Diodorus seems to insinuate, that none but the priests were permitted to land, on account of the sacredness of the place; accordingly the whole island seems to have been walled round, somewhat in the manner of a modern fortification, and a great part of that wall still remains. The particular kind of Ethiopian hawk, described by Strabo, and formerly worshiped here, is cut among the hieroglyphics in several parts, and represented with a long neck, extended wings, and a serpent coming out of it.

The temple of the hawk is built with free-stone, on the west side of the island. In the court of the temple, which is of great length, is a row of pillars on each side, adorned with a variety of capitals. Beyond this is an inner court, in which are very beautiful pillars with capitals wrought in basso relievo, in something like leaves and branches, above which is the head of Isis on each of the four sides. On the outside of this inner court are large colossal figures, cut on the S. side of a great pyramidal gate. At the S. the Island rises twenty or thirty feet above the water, affording a prospect above a mile S. to the rocks of granite, where the Nile turning, the view is terminated by those rocks in a most agreeable and romantic manner, all together having a noble and beautiful appearance.

To the E. of this structure is, according to Mr. Norden, the temple of Isis, which is an oblong square building, open on all sides. The capitals of the pillars, which have some resemblance of those of the Corinthian order, may be reckoned among the most beautiful in Egypt, and were probably of the last invention.

Chapter XV.

Of the Agriculture, Population, Manufactures, Arts, and Commerce of Egypt. The annual Fair at Tanta. The Commercial advantages of which the Country is capable.

THE ancient Egyptians paid great attention to agriculture; but in the period of 1200 years, in which this country has been subject to nations which are not cultivators, the inhabitants have suffered all the noble works of antiquity, which were erected for the purpose of assisting in this art, to go to ruin. Every year the limits of cultivated Egypt are encroached upon, and barren lands accumulate from all parts. Mr. Savary asserts, that upwards of one-third of the lands formerly in cultivation are now converted into deserts. In like manner population has diminished; ancient Egypt was supposed to contain eight millions of inhabitants, at present they do not reckon half that number*.

A conserve of wheat is made in this country, which is highly esteemed: it is composed of corn steeped in water for two days, then dried in the sun, and boiled to the thickness of a jelly. It is melting, sugary, and very nourishing. "If this sort of confection," says Mr. Savary, "dried in the oven, would keep at sea, it might be a very great resource in long voyages." Great quantities of honey and bees-wax are produced here.

At Gifa, is a large manufacture of Sal ammoniac, which is a considerable article of commerce between the Egyptians and Europeans. The tanners, goldsmiths, founders, and chemists, make use of it in their preparations. There are likewise manufactures of this volatile salt at Damietta, Kebira, and Mansura. According to Mr. Savary, about 2000 quintals a year are manufactured in different parts of the country. It is obtained from foot mixed with chopped straw and moistened with camels urine, which being placed in large glasses, with necks two inches long and of the same diameter, under these a fire is kept burning three days and three nights: the steam which exhales gradually adheres to the neck of the bottle, where it condenses, crystallizes, and forms a brilliant and solid mass.

The Egyptians rarely cultivating the olive-tree, they purchase their oil in Crete and Syria; but as they derive from their ancestors a taste for illuminations, they extract oil from different plants.

* Nevertheless, says Mr. Volney, as it is known that the number of towns and villages does not exceed two thousand three hundred, and the number of inhabitants in each of them, one with another, including Cairo itself, is not more than a thousand, the total cannot be more than two millions three hundred thousand.

AN ACCOUNT

The manufactures of Egypt consist of woolen, linen and silk. Their flax of which great quantities grow in the Delta, or that part of Egypt which is inclosed between the two branches of the Nile, is long, soft, and silky; it would make very beautiful linen, if the Egyptians knew how to treat it: but the spinners are very inexpert; the thread they make at the spindle is clumsy, hard, and uneven; the linens which they bleach serve for the table, others, dyed blue, are used for cloathing. The manufactures of linen are chiefly at Rosetta, where they also make striped linens for curtains to defend themselves against the gnats, those insects being very troublesome in lower Egypt. The flax of this country was formerly highly esteemed. At Maballe el Kebire, Capital at Garbia, the second province of the Delta, are linen manufactures.

The woolen of this country chiefly consists of unnaped carpets, used in their sophas.

Their raw silk is brought from Syria, and manufactured by them into large handkerchiefs for women's veils; they also make very rich handkerchiefs worked with gold and flowers of various colours, and sometimes make coverings of this sort for their sophas; they likewise manufacture a great variety of taffetas and satinets.

The Christians are the persons chiefly employed in their manufactures and mechanic arts: they are in particular the jewellers and silversmiths of Egypt. There is a very great demand for these sort of goods; for tho' the people are prohibited the use of plate in their houses, or the wearing of gold rings, a great deal of jeweller's work is used as ornaments in the dress of their women, and plate in the furniture of their houses.

The Egyptian pebbles are wrought and polished in great perfection, for the making snuff-boxes and the handles of knives, which is done with a wheel as they cut and polish precious stones. They also manufacture red leather; but it is not equal to that of Morocco or Constantinople.

As lower Egypt furnishes the rest of the country with rice, so upper Egypt supplies the lower with wheat and other grain. Since the Europeans found the way to the Indies, by encompassing the coast of Africa, the foreign trade of Egypt has so declined, that Indian calicoes, muslins, and China ware, are, at present dearer in that country than they are in England.

The exportation of corn from Egypt to any place out of the dominions of the Turks is prohibited; notwithstanding which, much is sent away, under the name of rice, from the port of Damietta; in the neighbouring plains of which the rice called Mezelaoui, which is the finest quality of any in Egypt, is cultivated: Mr. Savary says, the annual export of this article amounts to six millions of livres, or £262,500 sterling. Damietta carries on a great trade with Syria, Cyprus, and Marieilles; several drugs are sent from it to Europe, as coloquintida, senna, and the red dye called saffron. Flax is also exported to other parts of Turkey, and likewise to Leghorn, and cottons to Marieilles.

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Their importations are silk from Venice and Leghorn ; English, French, and Venetian cloth, drugs, dyes, and English tin, lead, and marble blocks from Leghorn ; furs, copper-vessels, and plates from Constantinople ; small-wares from France, Venice, and also Constantinople.

About fifty miles Northward of Grand Cairo, on the banks of a canal cut from the Nile, and which extends quite to lake Bourlos, is the large burg of Tanta, where a considerable fair is annually held, and continues eight days. The inhabitants both of Upper and Lower Egypt resort to it in great numbers. At that time ten thousand boats cover the canal ; several glass lamps are lighted every night on each mast, the reflection of which upon the water forms innumerable stars ; and the tents being likewise illuminated, a beautiful spectacle is exhibited, which extends a league in length.

Mr. Savary, whilst lamenting over the oppressions which impoverish and depopulate Egypt, points out the commercial advantages which might be obtained under an equitable and wise government. Colleir, seated on the borders of the Red Sea, might be rendered a port of great consequence, if the rout from it to the interior provinces of Egypt was rendered safe and commodious. We shoul'd then see landed there, the stuffs of Bengal, the perfumes of Jemen, and the Abyssinian gold-dust. This beautiful country, in the hands of a nation friendly to the arts, would once more become the centre of the commerce of the world. It would be the point of union between Europe and Asia : Alexandria would revive from her ashes. Vessels from India would avoid a dangerous navigation, about one hundred leagues along the narrow extremity of the Red Sea to Suez. A more advantageous situation than Egypt cannot be imagined. It communicates with the eastern and western Seas. Nature has done every thing for it ; and, to restore it to that high degree of glory and power, which once rendered it so famous, nothing is wanting but a people worthy of becoming its inhabitants.

Chapter XVI.

Of the Diseases of Egypt.—From Volney.

SECT. I.

Of Blindness.

THIS malady, of which so much has been said, is not the only remarkable one in Egypt ; there are several which equally deserve our notice.

Yet nothing can appear more extraordinary to a stranger than the prodigious number of persons whose sight is either lost or impaired, and

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which is so great, that out of a hundred persons I have met while walking in the streets of Cairo, twenty have been quite blind, ten wanting an eye, and twenty others have had their eyes red, purulent, or blemished. Almost every one wears a fillet, a token of an approaching or convalescent ophthalmia; but nothing astonished me more than the indifference and apathy with which they support so dreadful a misfortune. *It was decreed, says the Mussulman: praise be to God! God has willed it,* says the christian, *blessed be his name.* This resignation is undoubtedly the best resource when the evil has happened; but, as it prevents an inquiry into the cause of the disorder, it precludes the discovery of its cure. Some physicians among us have written on this distemper, but, from not being acquainted with all the circumstances, could not treat it with sufficient accuracy. I shall therefore add a few observations, which may assist others in future inquiries.

1st. Defluxions on the eyes are not peculiar to Egypt; they are also frequent in Syria, with this difference, that they are there less general; and it is remarkable that the inhabitants of the sea-coast alone are subject to them.

2d. In the city of Cairo, which is always full of filth, these disorders are more prevalent than in all the rest of Egypt.* The common people are more liable to them than persons in easy circumstances, and the natives more than foreigners. The Mamlouks are rarely attacked by them; and the peasants of the Delta are more subject to them than the Bedouin Arabs.

3d. These defluxions happen at no certain season, notwithstanding what is said by Prosper Alpinus. They are an endemic disorder, common to every month of the year, and to every age.

In reasoning from these principles, it seems to me that we cannot admit the southerly winds as a principal cause, since, in that case, this complaint would be peculiar to the month of April, and the Bedouins be effected with it like the peasants; nor can we ascribe it to any subtle dust with which the air is filled, because the peasants are more exposed to this than the inhabitants of towns; The custom of sleeping on the terraces has more the appearance of reality†; but this cause is neither confined to this country, nor is it adequate to the effects ascribed to it; for in countries remote from the sea, as the valley of Balbeck, the Diarbekar, the plains of Hauran, and the mountains, the inhabitants sleep also on their terraces, and yet their sight is not injured. If therefore, at Cairo, throughout the Delta, and on the coast of Syria, it is dangerous to sleep in the open air, this air must acquire some noxious quality from the vicinity of the sea; and this quality doubtless is moisture combined with heat, which then becomes a first principle of

* It must be observed, however, that the blind people of the villages come and reside in the *mosque of flowers*, where they have a sort of hospital.

† See De Tott's Memoirs part IV. T.

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these disorders. The saline quality of the air, so remarkable in the Delta, contributes still farther to this, by the irritation and itching it occasions in the eyes, as I have myself experienced.

The usual diet of the Egyptians appears likewise to be a powerful cause. The cheese, sour milk, honey, confection of grapes, green fruits, and raw vegetables, which are the ordinary food of the people, produce in the stomach a disorder, which physicians have observed to effect the sight; the raw onions, especially, which they devour in great quantities, have a peculiar heating quality, as the monks of Syria made me remark on myself. Bodies thus nourished, abound in corrupted humours, which are constantly endeavouring a discharge. Diverted from the ordinary channels, by habitual perspiration, they fly to the exterior parts, and fix themselves where they find the least resistance. They therefore naturally attack the head, because the Egyptians, by shaving it once a week, and covering it with a prodigiously hot head-dress, principally attract to that the perspiration; and if the head receives ever so slight an impression of cold, on being uncovered, this perspiration is suppressed, and falls upon the teeth, or still more readily on the eyes, as being the tenderest part. On every fresh cold this organ is weakened, and at length finally destroyed. A disposition to this disorder, transmitted by generation, becomes a fresh cause of malady; and hence the natives are more exposed to it than strangers. It will appear more probable that the excessive perspiration of the head is a principal cause, when we reflect that the ancient Egyptians, who went bare headed, are not mentioned by physicians as being so much afflicted with ophthalmies;* and that the Arabs of the desert, who cover it very little, especially when young, are equally exempt from them.

SECT. II.

Of the Small Pox.

BLINDNESS in Egypt is in many instances occasioned by the consequences of the small pox. This disorder which is very fatal in that country, is not treated after a good method; during the three first days, whey, or confection of grapes, honey, and sugar, are administered to the sick, and, after the seventh, they are allowed milk, meat, and salt-fish, as if they were in full health; at the period of suppuration, they are never purged, and they particularly avoid washing their eyes, though they are full of matter; and their eyes-lids closed by the glutinous matter; this operation they never perform till after forty days, and in that time, the pus, by irritating the ball, has produced an inflammation which affects the whole eye. Not that inoculation is unknown among them, but they make little use of it. Nor

* History, however, informs us that several of the Pharaohs died blind.

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is it more practised by the Syrians and the inhabitants of Anatolia, who have long been acquainted with it*.

This improper regimen is certainly far more pernicious than the climate, which is by no means unhealthy†. To unwholesome food, especially, must we attribute both the deformity of the beggars, and the miserable appearance of the children at Cairo, which are no where to be met with so misshapen and wretched. Their hollow eyes, their pale and puffed faces, swollen bellies, meagre extremities, and yellow skins, make them always seem as if they had not long to live. Their ignorant mothers pretend that this is the effect of the evil eye of some envious person, which has bewitched them; and this ancient prejudice is still general in Turkey; but the real cause is the badness of their food. In spite of the Talismans, therefore||, an incredible number of them perish, nor is any city more fatal to the population of the neighbouring country than Grand Cairo.

Another very general distemper at Cairo, is that which the vulgar there call the blessed evil, and which we also improperly term the Neapolitan disorder: one half of Cairo is infected with it. The greatest part of the inhabitants believe it proceeds from fright, from witchcraft, or from uncleanness. Some of them suspect the real cause; but as that is connected with a subject on which they are remarkably reserved, they chuse not to mention it. This blessed evil is very difficult to cure; mercury, under whatever form administered, generally fails; sudorific vegetables succeed better, without however being infallible; happily, the virus is not very active, on account of the great natural and artificial perspiration. We see there, as in Spain, old men carrying this disorder about them to the age of eighty. But its effects are fatal to children born with the infection. The danger is imminent for such as carry it into a cold country; for it there never fails to make a rapid progress, and shews itself always more inveterate from this transplantation. In Syria, at Damascus, and in the mountains, it is the more dangerous, as the winter is very severe there; when neglected, it terminates in all its well known symptoms, as I myself witnessed in two instances.

There is a troublesome complaint peculiar to the climate of Egypt, which is a cutaneous eruption that returns every year. Towards the end of June, or the beginning of July, the body is covered with red spots and pimpls, the smarting of which is very troublesome. Several

* They perform the operation by inserting a thread into the flesh, or by making the patient inhale, or swallow, the powder of dried pustules.

† The Mamlouks are a proof of this, who, from wholesome diet and a proper regimen, enjoy the most robust state of health.

‡ *Nescio quis teneros oculus mibi fascinat agnos.* Virgil.

|| We often see, in Egypt, little pieces of red stuff, or branches of coral, and coloured glass, hanging on the faces of children, and even of grown persons. These are supposed, by their colour and motion, to fix the first glance of the envious, for it is that, they say, which strikes.

physicians, perceiving that this eruption regularly happened at the time of the new waters, have been of opinion, that it was occasioned by the salts with which they supposed these waters impregnated; but the existence of these salts is not proved, and a more simple reason may be assigned. I have already laid, that the waters of the Nile become corrupted towards the end of April, in the bed of the river, and, when drank, produce humours of a malignant quality. When the new water arrives, it occasions a sort of fermentation in the blood, the result of which is to separate the vicious humours, and expel them towards the skin, whither they are invited by the perspiration. It is, in its effect, a real purgative depuration, and is always salutary.

Another disease, but too common at Cairo, is a swelling of the testicles, which frequently turns to an enormous hydrocele. It is observed to attack principally the Greeks and Copts, and hence arises the suspicion that is occasioned by the great quantity of oil which they make use of two thirds of the year. It is conjectured, also, that the hot-baths contribute to it, the immoderate use of which produces other effects not less injurious to health*. I shall remark on this occasion, that in Syria, as well as in Egypt, constant experience has proved that brandy distilled from common figs, or from the fruit of the sycamore tree, as well as that extracted from dates, and the fruit of the nopal, has a most immediate effect on the testicles, which it renders hard and painful the third or fourth day after it has been used as drink; and if the use of it

* The Egyptians, and the Turks in general, have a fondness for the stove-baths, difficult to account for in a country so hot as theirs: but this appears to me to arise more from prejudice than the pleasure they find in them. The law of the Koran, which enjoins men a complete ablution after the conjugal act, is of itself a very powerful motive, and the vanity they attach to its execution, is another not less efficacious: As for the women, they have other motives: First, the bath is the only place in which they can make a parade of their luxury, and regale themselves with melons, fruits, pastry and other delicacies. Secondly, they believe, as Prosper Alpinus has observed, that the bath gives them that *embonpoint* which passes for beauty. With respect to strangers their opinions differ according to their tastes. Many merchants of Cairo are pleased with the baths, others have found them disagreeable. For my part, I found the bath produce in me a vertigo, and trembling at the knees, which lasted two days. I confess it is very extraordinary that a water really scalding, and a profuse sweat, forced out by the convulsions of the lungs, as well as by the heat, should be considered as giving so much pleasure; nor do I envy the Turks either their opium or their stoves, or their *too complaisant Massers*!

(These *Massers* are boys who knead the flesh, crack all the joints, scrape off the scurf, eradicate the superfluous hairs, rub the body gently, and are said to be subservient to the pleasures of the bather. T.)

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be not discontinued, the disorder degenerates into a confirmed hydrocele.

Brandy made from dried raisins has not the same bad effect; it is always mixed with anniseeds, and is very strong, being distilled even three times. The Christians of Syria, and the Copts of Egypt, make great use of it; the latter, especially, drink whole bottles of it at their supper: I imagined this an exaggeration, but I have myself had ocular proofs of its truth, though nothing could equal my astonishment that such excesses do not produce instant death, or, at least, every symptom of the most insensible drunkenness.

The spring, which in Egypt is the summer of our climates, brings with it malignant fevers, which soon arrive at a crisis. A French physician, who has had opportunities to observe a great number of them, has remarked, that the bark, given in the intermissions, in doses of two or three ounces, has frequently saved the patient at the last extremity*. As soon as the disorder appears, the patient must be rigorously restricted to a vegetable acid regimen; meat is prohibited, fish likewise, and above all, eggs; the latter are a sort of poison in Egypt. In this country, as in Syria, experience proves that bleeding is always more injurious than beneficial, even in cases where it appears to be most necessary: the reason of which is, that bodies nourished with unwholesome aliments, such as green fruits, raw vegetables, cheese and olives, have in fact but little blood, and a great quantity of humours; their habit is generally bilious, as appears from their eyes and their black eye-brows, their brown complexion and meagre-make. Their habitual malady is the cholic; almost all of them complain of a sourness in the throat, and an acid nausea; emetics and cream of tartar are therefore very generally successful.

The malignant fevers become sometimes epidemic, in which case they are easily mistaken for the plague, of which I shall next speak.

SECT. III.

Of the Plague.

SOME persons have attempted to establish an opinion that the plague is of Egyptian origin; but this supposition, founded on vague prejudices, seems to be disproved by facts. The European merchants who have been settled for many years at Alexandria, concur with the Egyptians, in declaring that the plague never proceeds from the interior of the country†, but first makes its appearance on the coast, at Alex-

* The next day he always administers a clyster to expell the bark.

† Prosper Alpinus, a Venetian physician, who wrote in 1591, says also, that the plague is not of Egyptian origin; that it is brought from Greece, Syria, and Barbary; that the heats destroy it. &c. See *Medicina Egyptoiorum*, p. 28.

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andria ; from Alexandria it passes to Rosetta, from Rosetta to Cairo, from Cairo to Damietta, and through the rest of the Delta. They further observe, that it is invariably preceded by the arrival of some vessel coming from Smyrna or Constantinople ; and that if the plague has been violent in one of these cities during the summer, the danger is the greater for themselves the following winter. It appears certain, that it really originates from Constantinople, where it is perpetuated by the absurd negligence of the Turks : this is carried so far that they publicly sell the effects of persons dead of that disorder. The ships which go to Alexandria never fail to carry furs and woollen cloths purchased on these occasions, which they expose to sale in the Bazar of the city, and thereby spread the contagion. The Greeks who carry on this commerce are almost always the first victims. By degrees the disorder reaches Rosetta, and at length Cairo, following the usual road of the merchandize. As soon as it is confirmed, the European merchants shut themselves and their domestics up in their Kans, and have no further external communication with the city. Their provisions, deposited at the gate of the Kan, are received there by the porter, who takes them up with iron tongs, and plunges them into a barrel of water provided for this purpose. If it is necessary to speak to any one, they always keep at such a distance as to prevent touching with their clothes, or breathing on one another ; by these means they preserve themselves from this dreadful calamity, unless by some accidental neglect of these precautions. Some years ago a cat, which passed by one of the terraces into the dwelling of our merchants at Cairo, conveyed the plague to two of them, one of whom died.

It will easily be imagined what a tiresome state of imprisonment this must be : it continues for three or four months, during which time they have no other amusement than walking in the evening, on the terraces, or playing cards.

The plague affords several very remarkable varieties. At Constantinople, it prevails during the summer, and is greatly weakened, or entirely ceases, during the winter ; in Egypt, on the contrary, it is most violent in winter, and infallibly ends in the month of June. This apparent contrariety may be explained on the same principle. The winter destroys the plague at Constantinople, because the cold there is very severe, and the summer revives it because the heat is very humid, on account of the seas, forests, and adjacent mountains. In Egypt, the winter nourishes the plague, because it is mild and humid ; but the summer destroys it, because it is hot and dry. It seems to act on it, as on flesh meat, which it does not suffer to corrupt. Heat is not prejudicial, but as it is combined with humidity*. Egypt is afflicted with the plague every fourth or fifth year, and the ravages it causes would

* At Cairo, it is observed, that the water carriers, continually wet with fresh water they carry in skins upon their backs, are never subject to the plague ; but in this case it is *lotion* and not humidity.

depopulate the country, were it not for a great number of strangers who resort thither from all parts of the empire, and in a great measure repair its losses.

In Syria the plague is much less common ; five and twenty years have elapsed since it has been known there. This arises, no doubt, from the small number of vessels which come directly from Constantinople. It is remarked likewise, that it does not naturalize itself so easily to that province. When brought from the Archipelago, or even from Damietta, into the harbours of Latakia, Saide, or Acre it will spread ; it rather chuses preliminary circumstances, and a combined route : but when it passes directly from Cairo to Damascus, all Syria is sure to be infected.

The doctrine of predestination, and still more the barbarism of the government, have hitherto prevented the Turks from attempting to guard against this destructive disorder : the success, however, of the precautions taken by the Franks, has of late begun to make some impression upon many of them. The Christians of the country who traffic with our merchants, would be disposed to shut themselves up like them ; but this they cannot do without the authority of the Porte. It seems, indeed, as if the Divan would at length pay some attention to this object, if it be true that an edict was issued last year for the establishment of a Lazaretto at Constantinople, and three others at Smyrna, Candia, and Alexandria. The government of Tunis adopted this wise measure some years ago : but the Turkish police is every where so wretched, that little success can be hoped for from these establishments, notwithstanding their extreme importance to commerce, and the safety of the Mediterranean states*.

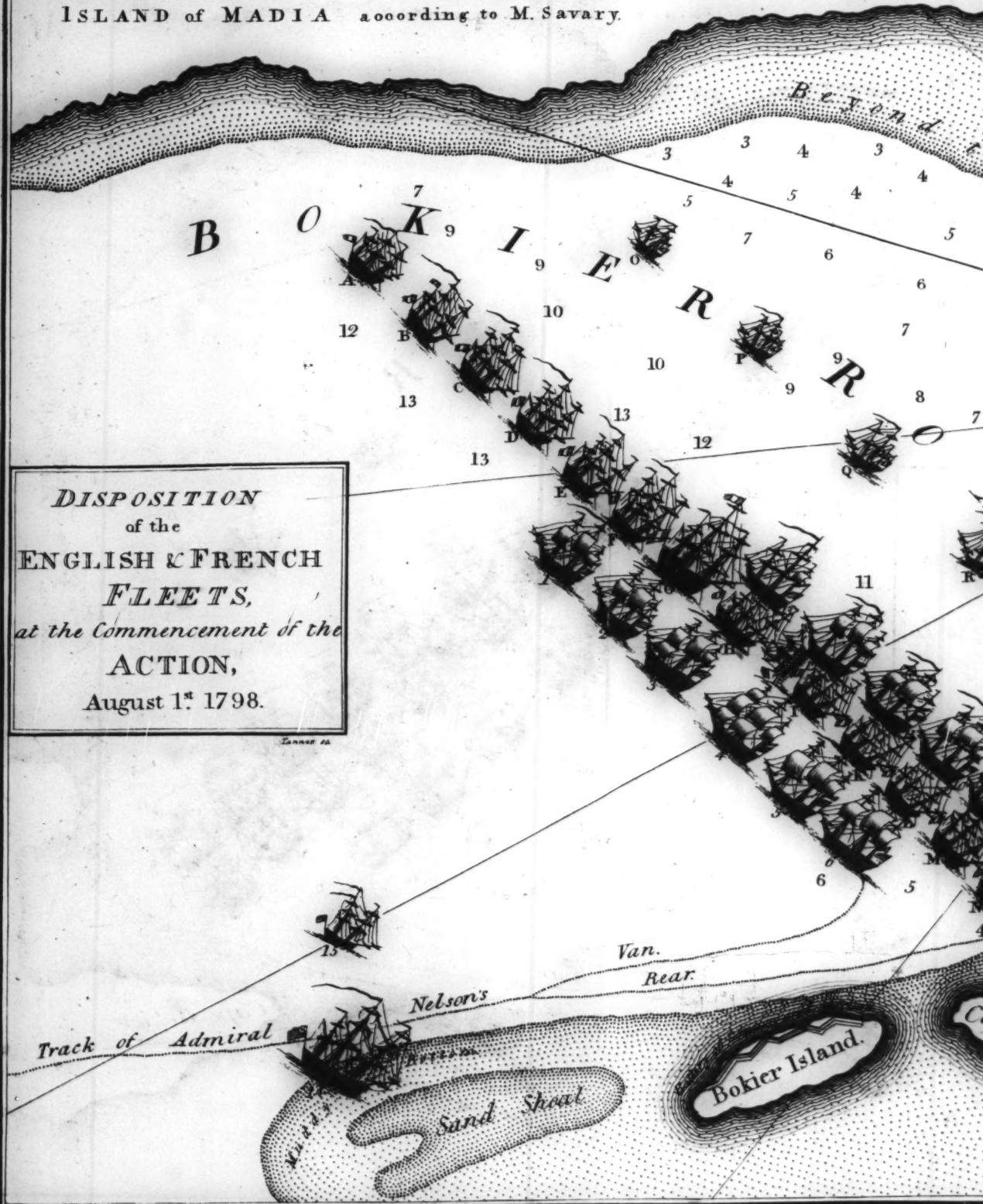
* The very last year afforded a proof of this, since as violent a plague as ever was known, broke out there. It was brought by vessels coming from Constantinople, the masters of which corrupted the guards, and came into port without performing quarantine.

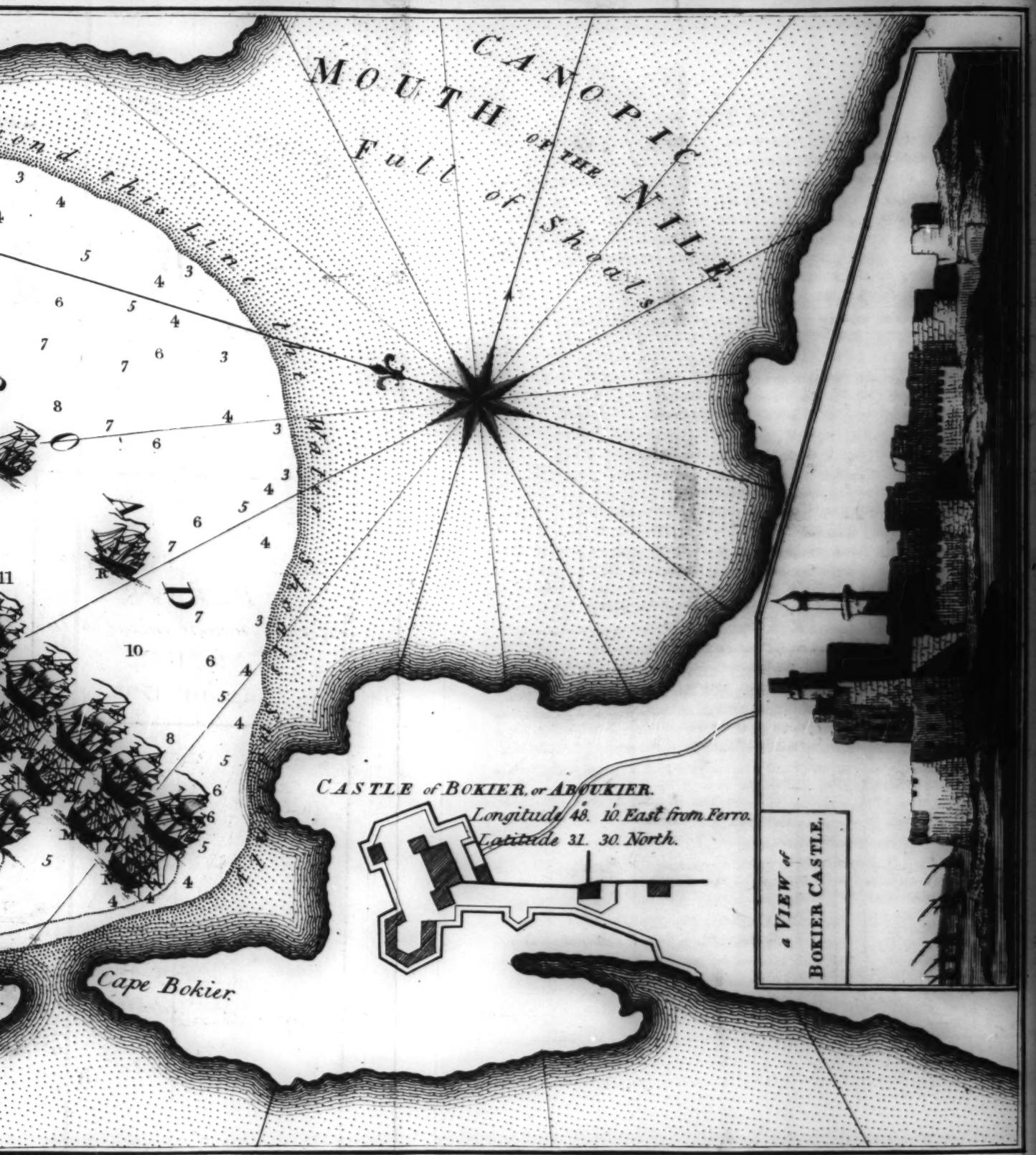
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END OF THE ACCOUNT OF EGYPT.



ISLAND of MADIA according to M. Savary.





John Reid, March 1st 1799.

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APPENDIX;

CONTAINING all the official letters that have been published in London and Paris relative to the naval action fought on the 1st and 2d of August, 1798, between the British fleet, under Sir Horatio Nelson, K. B. and the French fleet, under Vice-Admiral Brueys, in the road of Aboukir, situated about four leagues from Alexandria, in the direction of N. E. by N. To which are added, interesting particulars of this decisive action, extracted from private letters from gentlemen in both fleets, and illustrated by the annexed plan. The following table shews the position of the ships at the commencement of the action.

British Line, as engaged, with their killed, wounded, &c.

reference.	Ships.	gns	Men	Commanders.	Killed.	Wound.	Tot.
1	Majestic, -	74	590	George B. Wescott,	50	143	193
2	Bellerophon, -	74	590	Henry D. E. Darby,	49	148	197
3	Swiftsure, -	74	590	B. Hallowell, -	7	22	29
4	Defence, -	74	590	John Peyton, -	4	11	15
5	Minotaur, -	74	640	Thomas Lewis, -	23	54	87
6	Vanguard, -	74	595	{ Rear Adm. Nelson, Capt. Edwd. Berry, }	30	75	105
7	*Leander, -	50	343	T. B. Thompson, -	—	14	14
8	Zealous, -	74	590	Samuel Hood, -	1	7	8
9	Audacious, -	74	590	David Goold, -	1	34	35
10	Goliath -	74	590	Thomas Foley, -	21	41	62
11	Theseus, -	74	570	R. W. Miller, -	6	29	35
12	Alexander, -	74	590	Alexander J. Ball, -	14	58	72
13	Orion, -	74	590	S. James Saumarez, -	13	29	42
14	Culloden, -	74	590	T. Troubridge, -	ashore, not in action.		
15	L'Mutine, (brig)	14	85	Hon. T. Capell, -	do.		
Total,					219	676	895

French Line, as anchored in the Road of Bokier at the time of action.

reference.	Ships.	gns	Men	Commanders.	Fate in Action.
N	Le Guerrier, -	74	700	—	Taken.
M	Le Conquerant, -	74	700	—	Do.
L	Le Spartiate, -	74	700	—	Do.
K	L'Aquilon, -	74	700	—	Do.
I	Le Souverain	74	700	—	Do.
H	Le Peuple, -	—	—	—	Do.
H	Le Franklin, -	80	800	Blanquet, 1st contre Ad.	Do.
G	L'Orient, -	120	1010	{ Vice Ad. and comm. in chief }	Burnt.
F	+Le Tonnant, -	80	800	—	Taken.
E	L'Heureux, -	74	700	—	Do.
D	+Le Timoleon, -	74	700	—	Do.
C	Le Mercure, -	74	700	—	Do.
B	Le Guillaume Tell, -	80	800	Villeneuve, { 2d contre Admiral. }	Escaped.
A	Le Genereux, -	74	700	—	Do.
O	La Diane, -	48	350	—	Do.
P	La Justee, -	44	300	—	Do.
Q	La Serieuse, -	36	250	Frigates,	Sunk,
R	L'Artemise, -	36	250	—	Burnt.

* Taken by Le Genereux, of 74 guns, on the 13th of August.

† Ran on shore by the French on the 3d of August, but was got off by the exertions of Capt. Miller, of the Theseus; the crew escaped on shore.

‡ Ran on shore by the French, and burnt on the 3d of August, before she was taken possession of; the crew escaped on shore.

ADMIRALITY OFFICE, OCT. 2.

The Hon. Capt. Capel of his majesty's sloop Mutine, arrived this morning with dispatches from Rear Admiral Sir H. Nelson, K. B. to Evan Nepean, Esq. Secretary of the Admiralty, of which the following are copies:

Vanguard, Mouth of the Nile, August 7, 1798,
SIR,

HEREWITH I have the honour to tranmit you a copy of my letter to the Earl of St. Vincent, together with a line of battle of the English and French squadrons, also a list of killed and wounded. I have the pleasure to inform you that 8 of our ships have already top-gallant yards across and ready for any service; the others, with the prizes will soon be ready for sea. In an event of this importance, I have thought it right to send Capt. Capel with a copy of my letter (to the commander in chief) over land which I hope their lordships will approve; and beg leave to refer them to Capt. Capel, who is a most excellent officer, and able to give every information: and I beg leave to recommend him to their lordship's notice.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HORATIO NELSON.

P. S. The Island I have taken possession of, and brought off the two 3 inch mortars, all the brass guns, and destroyed the iron ones.

Vanguard, off the Mouth of the Nile, August 3, 1798.

MY LORD,

Almighty God has blessed his majesty's arms in the late battle, by a great victory over the fleet of the enemy, whom I attacked at Sun-set on the 1st of August, off the mouth of the Nile. The enemy were moored in a strong line of battle for defending the entrance of the bay (of shoals) flanked by numerous gun-boats, 4 frigates, and a battery of guns and mortars on an island in their van; but nothing could withstand the squadron your lordship did me the honour to place under my command. Their high state of discipline is well known to you; and with the judgement of the captains, together with their valor and that of the officers and men of every description, it was absolutely irresistible.

Could any thing from my pen add to the characters of the captains, I would write it with pleasure; but it is impossible.

I have to regret the loss of captain Wescott, of the Majestic, who was killed early in the action, but the ship was continued to be so well fought by her 1st lieutenant, Mr. Cuthbert, that I have given him an order to command her till your lordship's pleasure is known.

The ships of the enemy, all but their two rear ships, are nearly dismasted; and those two, with two frigates, I am sorry to say made their escape; nor was it, I assure you, in my power to prevent them. Captain Hood most handsomely endeavoured to do it; but I had no ship in a condition to support the Zealous, and I was obliged to call her in.

The support and assistance I have received from Captain Berry, cannot be sufficiently expressed. I was wounded in the head, and obliged to be carried off the deck, but the service suffered no loss by that event. Captain Berry was fully equal to the important service then going on, and to him I must beg leave to refer you for every information relative to this victory. He will present you with the flag of the second in command, that of the commander in chief being burnt in the L'Orient.

Herewith I transmit you lists of the killed and wounded, and the lines of battle of ourselves and the French.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HORATIO NELSON.

Admiral the Earl of St. Vincent.

Additional information respecting the Action, taken from London papers.

THE attack made by Admiral Nelson with the British fleet under his command, on that of the French, under Admiral Brueys, at the Road of Bequier, or Bokier, is perhaps without parallel. The French ships were drawn up in a close line of battle, with springs upon their cables; thus presenting a connected chain of floating batteries against the British ships; besides the batteries of cannon and mortars on the island of Bokier, situated at the western entrance of the road, and in their van. This was certainly a formidable position; but the undaunted courage of Nelson and his ships' crews, and his superior knowledge in naval tactics, caused the British fleet to surmount every obstacle.

Nelson made the signal for his fleet, as they led in, to get between the French line and the shore; in performing which, the Culloden, being the van ship, grounded. By completing this manœuvre, the British came upon that side on which the French were the least prepared for action; and thus a very material advantage was early gained, as it threw the weight of the action chiefly on one wing of the French fleet. By comparing the different accounts, we find that the action lasted upwards of fifteen hours.

Captain Darby, of the Bellerophon, states, in a private letter, that after the L'Orient had taken fire, he was obliged to remove from her, fearing the explosion, and which took place before he was out of danger and set his ship on fire in four places, which was happily extinguished but that he lost a considerable number of his men by the accident*

* It must be noticed in this place that the Road of Abokir is often called by different names, by different nations; the French call it Boquier, the British Bokir, or Boquieres, &c. Its proper name in Arabic is Abouker according to the best authors.

Authentic Narrative of the Proceedings of his Majesty's Squadron, under the command of Rear Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson, drawn up from the minutes of an Officer of rank in the Squadron.

We saw the Pharos, of Alexandria, at noon, on the 1st of August. The Alexander and Swiftsure had been detached a-head on the preceding evening to reconnoitre the ports of Alexandria, while the main body of the squadron kept in the offing. The enemy's fleet were first discovered by the Zealous, captain Hood, who immediately communicated, by signal, the number of ships, sixteen, lying at anchor, in line of battle, in a bay upon the larboard bow, which we afterwards found to be Aboukir Bay.—The Admiral hauled his wind that instant, a movement which was immediately observed and followed by the whole squadron; and at the same time recalled the Alexander and Swiftsure. The wind was at this time N. N. W. And blew what seaman call a top-gallant breeze.—It was necessary to take in the royals when we hauled upon a wind.

The Admiral made the Signal to prepare for battle, and that it was his intention to attack the enemy's van and centre as they lay at anchor, and according to the plan before developed. His idea, in this disposition of his force, was first to secure the victory, and then to make the most of it as circumstances might permit. A bower cable of each ship was immediately got out abaft, and bent forward. We continued carrying sail, and standing in for the enemy's fleet in a close line of battle. As all the officers of our squadron were totally unacquainted with Aboukir bay, each ship kept sounding as she stood in.

The enemy appeared to be moored in a strong and compact line of battle, close in with the shore, their line describing an obtuse angle in its form flanked by numerous gun-boats, four frigates and a battery of guns and mortars on an island in their van.—This situation of the enemy seemed to secure to them the most decided advantages, as they had nothing to attend to but their artillery, in their superior skill in the use of which the French so much pride themselves, and to which indeed their splendid series of land victories was in general chiefly to be imputed.

The position of the enemy presented the most formidable obstacles; but the admiral viewed these with the eye of a seaman determined on attack; and it instantly struck his eager and penetrating mind, "that where there was room for an enemy's ship to swing, there was room for one of our's to anchor." No further signal was necessary than those which had already been made. The admiral's designs were as fully known to his whole squadron, as was his determination to conquer, or perish in the attempt.

The Goliah and Zealous had the honor to lead inside, and to receive the first fire from the van of the enemy, as well as from the batteries and gun-boats with which their van was strengthened. These two ships, with the Orion, Audacious, and Theseus, took their stations inside of the enemy's line, and were immediately in close action. The Vanguard anchored the first on the outer side of the enemy, and was opposed within half pistol shot to Le Spartiate, the third in the enemy's line. In stand-

ng in, our leading ships were unavoidably obliged to receive into their bows the whole fire of the broadsides of the French line, until they could ake their respective stations ; and it is but justice to observe, that the enemy received us with great firmness and deliberation, no colours having been hoisted on either side, nor a gun fired, till our van ships were within half a gun shot. At this time the necessary number of our men were employed aloft in furling sails, and on deck, in hauling the braces, &c. preparatory to our casting anchor. As soon as this took place, a most animated fire was opened from the Vanguard, which ship covered the approach of those in the rear, that were following in a close line. The Minotaur, Defence, Bellerophon, Majestic, Swiftsure and Alexander, came up in succession, and passing within hail of the Vanguard, took up their respective stations, opposed to the enemy's line. All our ships anchored by the stern, by which means the British line became inverted from van to rear. Captain Thompson, of the Leander of fifty guns, with a degree of judgment, highly honourable to his professional character, advanced towards the enemy's line on the outside, and most judiciously dropped his anchor athwart hause of Le Franklin, and raking her with great success, the shot from the Leander's broadside which passed that ship all striking L'Orient, the flag ship of the commander in chief. The action conamenced at sun-set, which was at thirty-one minutes past six, P. M. with an ardor and vigor which it is impossible to describe.

About seven o'clock total darknes had come on ; but the whole hemisphere was, with intervals, illuminated by the fire of the hostile fleets. Our ships, when darknes came on, had all hoisted their distinguishing lights, by a signal from the admiral. The van ship of the enemy, Le Guerrier, was dismasted in less than twelve minutes ; and in ten minutes after, the second ship, Le Conquerant, and the third, Le Spartiate, very nearly at the same moment, were also dismasted. L'Aquilon, and Le Souverain Peuple, the fourth and fifth ships of the enemy's line, were taken possession of by the British at half past eight in the evening.— Captain Berry, at that hour, sent lieut. Galwey of the Vanguard, with a party of marines, to take possession of Le Spartiate, and that officer returned by the boat, the French captain's sword, which captain Berry immediately delivered to the admiral, who was then below in consequence of a severe wound which he had received in the head during the heat of the attack. At this time it appeared that victory had already declared itself in our favour, for although L'Orient, L'Heureux, and Tonnant, were not taken possession of, they were considered as compleatly in our power, which pleasing intelligence captain Berry had likewise the satisfaction of communicating in person to the admiral. At ten minutes after nine, a fire was observed on board L'Orient, the French admiral's ship, which seemed to proceed from the after part of the cabin, and which increased with great rapidity, presently involving the whole of the after part of the ship in flames. This circumstance captain Berry immediately communicated to the admiral, who, though suffering severely from his wound, came upon deck, where the first consideration that struck his

mind, was concern for the danger of so many lives, to save as many as possible of whom he ordered captain Berry to make every practicable exertion. A boat, the only one that could swim, was instantly dispatched from the Vanguard, and other ships that were in a condition to do so immediately followed the example, by which means, from the best possible information, the lives of about seventy Frenchmen were saved. The light thrown by L'Orient upon the surrounding objects, enabled us to perceive, with more certainty, the situation of the two fleets, the colours of both being clearly distinguishable. The cannonading was still partially kept up to leeward of the centre, till about ten o'clock, when, L'Orient blew up with a most tremendous explosion. An awful pause and death-like silence for about three minutes ensued, when the wreck of the masts, yards, &c. &c. which had been carried to a vast height, fell down into the water, and on board the surrounding ships. A port fire from L'Orient, fell into the main royal of the Alexander, the fire occasioned by which was, however, extinguished in about two minutes, by the active exertions of captain Ball. After this awful scene, the firing recommenced with the ships to leeward of the centre, till twenty minutes past ten, when there was a total cessation of firing for about ten minutes; after which it was revived till about three in the morning, when it again ceased.

After the victory had been secured in the van, such British ships as were in a condition to move had gone down upon the fresh ships of the enemy. At five minutes past five in the morning the two rear ships of the enemy, Le Guillaume Tell and Le Generoux, were the only French ships of the line that had their colours flying. At fifty-four minutes past five a French frigate, L'Artemise fired a broadside and struck her colours, but such was the unwarrantable and infamous conduct of the French captain, that after having thus surrendered, he set fire to his ship, and with part of his crew made his escape on shore. Another of the French frigates, La Serieuse, had been sunk by the fire from some of our ships; but as her poop remained above water, her men were saved upon it, and were taken off by our boats in the morning.

The Bellerophon, whose masts and cables had been entirely shot away, could not retain her situation abreast of the L'Orient, but had drifted out of the line to the lee side of the bay, a little before that ship blew up. The Audacious was in the morning detached to her assistance.

At 11 o'clock Le Generoux and Guillaume Tell, with the two frigates, Le Justice and La Diane, cut their cables and stood out to sea, pursued by the Zealous, capt. Hood, who, as the admiral himself has stated, handsomely endeavoured to prevent their escape; but as there was no other ship in a condition to support the Zealous, she was recalled.

The whole day of the second was employed in securing the French ships that had struck, and which were now compleatly in our possession, Le Tonnant and Le Timoleon excepted, as these were both dismasted, and consequently could not escape, they were naturally the last of which we thought of taking possession.

On the morning of the third the Timoleon was set fire to, and Le Tonnant had cut her cable and drifted on shore, but that active officer, captain Miller, of the Theseus, soon got her off again, and secured her in the British line.

The British force engaged consisted of twelve ships of seventy-four guns, and the Leander of fifty.

From the over anxiety and zeal of capt. Trowbridge to get into action, his ship, the Culloden, in standing in for the van of the enemy's line, unfortunately grounded upon the tail of a shoal running off from the island, on which were the mortar and gun batteries of the enemy, and notwithstanding all the exertions of that able officer and his ship's company she could not be got off. This unfortunate circumstance was severely felt at the moment by the admiral and all the officers of the squadron; but their feelings were nothing compared to the anxiety and even anguish of mind, which the captain of the Culloden himself experienced, for so many eventful hours. There was but one consolation that could offer itself to him in the midst of the distresses of his situation, a feeble one it is true—that his ship served as a beacon for three other ships, viz. the Alexander, Theseus, and Leander, which were advancing with all possible sail set, close in his rear, and which otherwise might have experienced a similar misfortune, and thus in a greater proportion still have weakened our force.

It was not till the morning of the 2d, that the Culloden could be got off, and it was found she had suffered very considerable damage in her bottom; that her rudder was beat off, and the crew could scarcely keep her afloat with all pumps going.

The resources of capt. Trowbridge's mind availed him much, and were admirably exerted upon this trying occasion. In four days he had a new rudder made upon his own deck, which was immediately shipped; and the Culloden was again in a state for actual service, though still very leaky.

The admiral, knowing that the wounded of his own ships had been well taken care of, bent his first attention to those of the enemy. He established a truce with the commandant of Aboukir, and through him made a communication to the commandant of Alexandria, that it was his intention to allow all the wounded Frenchmen to be taken ashore to proper hospitals, with their own surgeons to attend them; a proposal which was well received by the French and which was carried into effect on the following day.

The activity and generous consideration of captain Trowbridge, were again exerted at this time for the general good. He communicated with the shore, and had the address to procure a supply of fresh provisions, onions, &c. which were served out to the sick and wounded, and which proved of essential utility.

On the 4th day after the action, captain Berry, of the Vanguard, sailed in the Leander, of 50 guns, with the admiral's dispatches to the commander in chief, earl St. Vincent, off Cadiz, containing intelligence of the glorious victory which he had obtained.

ADMIRAL VILLINEUVE'S LETTER.

On board Le Guillaume Tell, Malta,
August 28, 1798.

THE English attacked us in the anchorage of Bequieres, on the 1st of August, about six in the evening, and of 13 ships and 4 frigates, which composed our force, 11 ships and 2 frigates have remained on the scene of action; but had it not been for the blowing up of the L'Orient, our bravery compensating our deficiency in numbers and tactics, would have been sufficient to sink the English along with ourselves, in one common overthrow. The enemy have only six ships remaining in a serviceable condition. I assure you that never has there been a more dreadful combat. We were within less than pistol shot of each other.

Our fleet, consisting of 13 ships, which were moored in a line, at the distance of two-thirds of a cable from each other, in the road of Bequieres. We had no conception that we should be attacked on the land side, considering the small space between us and the banks along shore; but the English shot along in this direction in so masterly a manner, that only their first ship touched the ground; and the rest passed in two lines, on the starboard and larboard sides of our headmost vessels. Our line was thus between two fires from the van to the L'Orient, which was in the centre.

The superb ship L'Orient took fire at 10 o'clock; she was attacked so closely, that it was the wadding of the English ships that set her on fire; and the sailors fought each other with their rammers. It was impossible to extinguish the flames. It was a terrible but melancholy spectacle to see this vessel fighting to the last extremity, though with the certain prospect of destruction. At midnight she blew up: our vessels were then thrown into disorder; every one cut their cables to escape the wreck.

(Signed) VILLINEUVE.

The following account was sent to the French minister of Marine by Rear Admiral Ganteaume.

Alexandria, August 5.

At two in the afternoon, the Heureux threw out a signal of 12 sail in W. N. W. Our men on the look out discovered them at the same time, and counted successively as many as 16. We were not long in recognizing these vessels to be an English squadron, composed of 14 sail of the line and 2 brigs. The enemy steered for our anchoring ground, with a press of sail, having a brig sounding a-head. The wind was N. and rather fresh. The two brigs, the Alceste and the Railleur, were immediately ordered to make sail to windward, to prevent the enemy's light vessel from continuing her soundings. The signals for stowing the hammocks, and making ready for fight; for announcing the resolution of engaging at anchor; and for recalling the men on board their respective ships, were all made at three. The long boats employed

in watering were also recalled : a boat was hastily dispatched from the Artemise to the shoals of Rosetta, to acquaint the transports there with the appearance of the enemy ; and finally, the frigates and corvettes were ordered to send as many of their men as possible on board the ships of the line. The enemy's squadron continued to advance with a press of sail ; after standing off to a considerable distance to avoid the breakers on the island, it hauled its wind, shortened sail, and clearly manifested a design to attack us. At three quarters after five, the battery on the little island threw some bombs, which fell into the van of the enemy's line. At six, the admiral threw out the signal for commencing the engagement, and shortly after, the two headmost ships began firing. Several of the enemy's vessels having suddenly shortened sail, had turned the head of our line, and letting go their anchors, with a cable astern, had ranged alongside, between us and the land, while others had moored themselves within pistol shot of us on the other side. By this manœuvre all our vessels, as far down as Le Tonnant, found themselves completely enveloped, and placed between two fires. It appeared, that in executing this manœuvre two of their vessels had run aground ; one of them, however, was immediately got off. The attack and the defence were extremely brisk. The whole of our van was attacked on both sides, and sometimes raked. In this disorder, and involved as we were in continual clouds of smoke, it was extremely difficult to distinguish the different movements of the line. At the beginning of the action, the admiral, all the superior officers, the first commissary, and about twenty pilots, and masters of transports, were on the poop of the ship, employed in serving the musquetry. All the soldiers and sailors were ordered to the guns on the main and lower decks : the twelve pounders were not half manned. After the action had lasted about an hour, the admiral was wounded in the body, and in the hand ; he then came down from the poop, and a short time after was killed on the quarter deck. Obliged to defend ourselves on both sides, we gave up the twelve pounders ; but the twenty-fours and thirty sixes kept up their fire with all possible ardour. The Franklin and Tonnant appeared to be in as critical a situation as ourselves.

The English having utterly destroyed our van, suffered their ships to drift forward, still ranging along our line, and taking their different stations around us ; while we (M S. illegible) van cut off, were frequently obliged to veer away our cable, or our hawser, to enable us to present our broadside to the enemy.—One of their ships, however, which lay close to us on the starboard side, totally dismasted, ceased her fire, and cut her cable, to get out of the reach of our guns : but obliged to defend ourselves against two others who were furiously thundering upon us, on the larboard quarter, and on the starboard bow, we were again compelled to heave in some of our cable. The 36 and 24 pounders were still firing briskly, when an explosion took place on the aft of the quarter deck. We had already had a boat on fire ; but we had cut it away, and so avoided the danger. We had also thrown a hammock, and some

other things, which were in flames, over board ; but the third time the fire spread so rapidly, and instantaneously amongst the fragments of every kind, with which the poop was incumbered, that all was soon in flames. The fire pumps had been dashed to pieces, by the enemy's balls, and the tubs and buckets rendered useless. An order was given to cease firing, that all hands might be at liberty to bring water ; but such was the ardour of the moment, that in the tumult, the guns of the main-deck still continued their fire. Although the officers had called all the people between decks, aloft, the flames had, in a very short time made most alarming progress, and we had but few means in our power of checking them. Our main and mizen masts were both carried away ; and we soon saw that there was no saving the ship ; the fire having already gained the poop, and even the battery on the quarter-deck. The captain and second captain had been wounded some time before. General Ganteaume therefore took upon himself the command, and ordered the scuttles to be opened, and every body to quit the ship. The fire broke out about a quarter before ten, and at half past ten the ship blew up, although we had taken the precaution to open all the water-courses. Some of the crew saved themselves on the wreck ; the rest perished. The action continued all the night with the ships in the rear, and at break of day we discovered that the Guerrier, the Conquerant, the Spartiate, the Aquilon, Peuple Souverain, and the Franklin, had hauled down their colours, and were in the possession of the enemy. The Timoleon with all her masts gone, was dropt a stern of the fleet, her colours still flying. The Heureux and the Mercure, which had run aground, were attacked, and obliged to strike in the morning. The Artesise was set on fire at 8 o'clock, and the Serieuse funk. The Guillaume Tell, the Genereux, the Timoleon, the Diana, and the Justice with their colours still flying, were engaged with some English vessels during a part of the morning ; but this division, with the exception of the Timoleon, set their sails, about 11 o'clock, and stood off to sea. The Timoleon ran a shore ; and we have since heard, that the captain, after landing all his men, set her on fire the next morning, to prevent her falling into the hands of the enemy. Such are the results of this horrible affair ; and we have detailed them as they presented themselves to our memory ; not having been able to preserve a paper or note of any kind.

Rear Admiral GANTEAUME.

BUONAPARTE's GENERAL ORDERS,

Read to his Army at Alexandria, on the twenty-fourth of August.

THE army is informed, that in the naval engagement which took place between the French and English squadrons, the vessel, the Tonnant gained the highest glory. She fought alone for thirty-six hours against the whole squadron. The brave captain Du Petit Thouars was killed by a cannon ball. Glory to his memory !

Glory to the whole crew of Tonnant. The Franklin struck before she was dismasted or had received any damage. Rear admiral Ganteaume, who was on board L'Orient, behaved extremely well; this brave man is at Alexandria. Admiral Villineuve, who rallied the squadron and conducted it to Malta, has thus rendered great service to the republic. All the crews who were on board the ships taken or burnt are at Alexandria.

French Account, from Paris papers.

THE English attacked us on the evening of the 1st of August, at half past 6 o'clock, with an inconceivable fury. They first appeared to the westward of the castle of Bequier. Our fleet consisted of 13 ships, anchored in a close line, at two thirds of a cable length (80 fathoms) from each other, with springs on our cables, we occupied the anchorage of Bequier, we did not believe it was possible for the English to attack us on the land side, seeing the very small space which was between us and the shallow water; but the English pushed in with such great skill, that only their leading vessel got aground; the remainder passed up on the larboard and starboard of our head vessels, thus our line found itself between two fires as far as the L'Orient, which was in the centre. Admiral Brueys who was first wounded in the leg, was killed by a bullet; immediately after, the L'Orient was set on fire by the wadding of the guns of the British ships opposed to her, this was at 10 P. M. And we found it impossible to extinguish the flames, at midnight she blew up, and at this moment there was the greatest disorder took place in the squadron, each ship had her cables cut to get clear of the explosion, the rear which was in a good state for action, did not begin till day break, then we beheld 6 English ships of the line and 5 French, closely engaged, viz. Le Mercure, L'Heureux, Le Generous, Le Timoleon, Le Tonnant and the frigates La Justice and La Diane, but in a short time L'Heureux, and Le Mercure struck, and the English recommenced their fire; the two frigates, Le Generous, and Le Gillaume Tell bore away for Candia, where the Generous stopped, and the other is at Malta. Be assured there never was a more dreadful engagement, we were not a pistol shot from each other, and the L'Orient lay so near to the English that the seaman killed each other with their rammers. The morning after, the two fleets afforded the most dreadful appearance of ruin and destruction. Among the killed, are Brueys, Casse, Bianca, Racors, Peter Thouars, Peyset, Damana's Standlet, and the commissary of the Ordonanteur of the squadron. Great numbers of our men have got on shore during the night, from the confusion that prevailed after the ships took fire.

NOTE.

THE plan of the action was copied from one received from London; and has been corrected by comparing it with D'Anville's Atlas of the Mediterranean sea, published for the use of the French Navy; the soundings are taken from thence, and the names from the best and most approved authors on Egypt. The remarks made on the table of the French fleet, are from the journal of an officer of distinction on board the British fleet, and an extract of his journal is inserted in the Appendix.

ADVERTISEMENT.

If it should appear, in the course of a short period, that the French army have penetrated into the province of Syria, or into Arabia, we then purpose to publish an account of those countries, in a manner similar to the present of Egypt; and to print it in the same size, with the type and paper equal in quality, that purchasers who have this pamphlet, may have a compleat volume on those countries. I NO 61

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